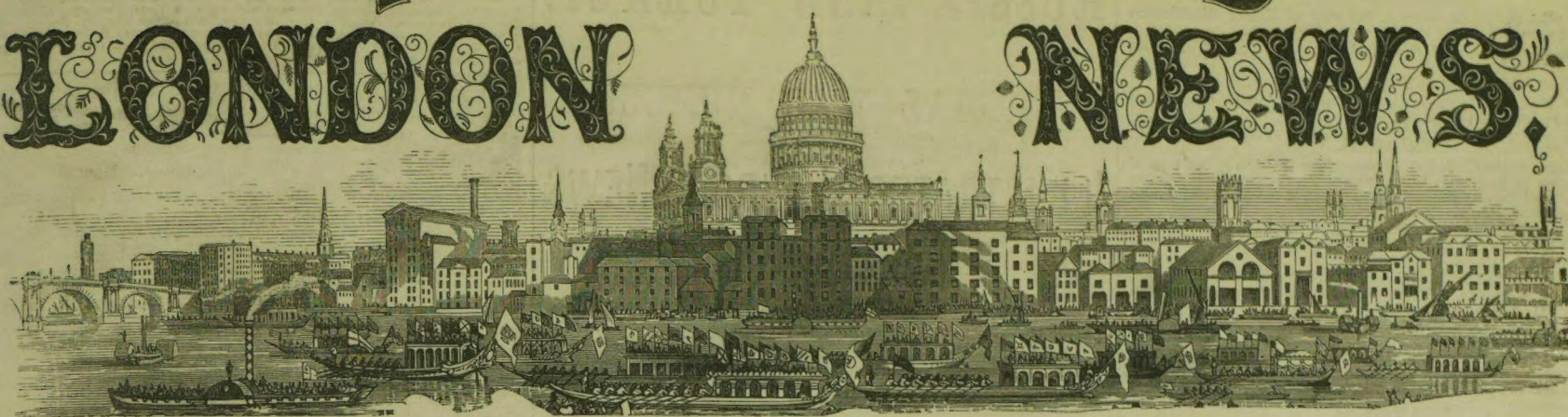


THE ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS



REGISTERED AT THE GENERAL POST-OFFICE FOR TRANSMISSION ABROAD.

No. 1975.—VOL. LXX.

SATURDAY, MAY 19, 1877.

WITH TWO SUPPLEMENTS {SIXPENCE.
By Post, 6^d.



THE WAR: RUSSIAN SOLDIERS OF THE LINE LEAVING THE BARBOSCHI STATION FOR BRAILA.
FROM A SKETCH BY ONE OF OUR SPECIAL ARTISTS.

BIRTHS.

On the 18th ult., at Rio de Janeiro, the wife of Ernest Whittington London, Esq., of a son.
On the 11th inst., at Wensley Hall, Lady Alghitha Orde-Powlett, of a son, stillborn.
On the 11th inst., the wife of the Hon. Ernest Cochrane, of a son.
On the 15th inst., at Lowndes-street, Belgrave-square, Viscountess Massarene and Ferrard, of a daughter.

MARRIAGES.

On the 10th inst., at the Cathedral, Madras, John Charles, second son of the late John Large, of Salisbury, Wilts, to Martha Galpin (Pattie) eldest surviving daughter of the late Edward Burch Goffe, of Kingsbourne, and formerly of Winchester, Hants.
On the 25th ult., at St. Peter's, Cintra, Lisbon, F. J. Coelho e Souza, jun., to Elvira Bettencourt de Sampaio Dart, fourth daughter of George Phillips Dart, Terciera, Azores. No cards.
On the 15th inst., at St. Mary's, Leicester, by the Rev. Charles Crowden, M.A., brother-in-law of the bridegroom, assisted by the Rev. Canon Broughton, Herbert, son of Thomas C. Fletcher, Esq., of 4, Stratford-place, W., to Sarah Tuffley (Minnie), youngest daughter of Samuel Stephens Bankart, Esq., of Leicester.
At St. Mary's, Bryanston-square, Lieutenant-General Sir E. Green, K.C.B., Bombay Staff Corps, to Mary, eldest daughter of T. Griffiths, Esq., late of Bideford, and now of Barnstaple, North Devon.

DEATHS.

On the 30th ult., at Holborn Union Workhouse, William Fraser, only surviving brother of the Hon. Alexander Fraser, late Her Majesty's Minister of Public Works, Victoria, aged 74. Australian papers please copy.
On the 5th ult., at sea, on the homeward voyage from Natal, Arrott Browning, C.E., aged 38 years, second son of the late Rev. David Cunningham Browning, of Newcastle-on-Tyne.
On the 8th inst., at Danté House, White Abbey, Belfast, William Crozier Cunningham, solicitor, and Clerk of the Peace for the borough of Belfast, aged 48 years.
On the 12th inst., at Hope Hall, Pendleton, Manchester, of empyema, Cicely, third daughter of Lieutenant-General Sir Henry de Bathe, Bart., in her 16th year.
On the 14th inst., at 24, Blythwood-square, Elizabeth Miller, beloved wife of John Robertson, aged 33 years and 6 days.
On the 8th inst., at Norbiton, Surrey, Lady Eleanor Cathcart.
On the 11th inst., at his residence, 39, Dover-street, Charles John, nineteenth Earl of Shrewsbury and fourth Earl Talbot, in the 47th year of his age.

* The charge for the insertion of Births, Marriages, or Deaths is Five Shillings for each announcement.

CALENDAR FOR THE WEEK ENDING MAY 26.

SUNDAY, MAY 20.

Whit Sunday. Moon's First Quarter, 0.56 a.m.
St. Paul's Cathedral, 10.30 a.m., the Dean, Dr. Church; 3.15 p.m., Rev. Canon Lightfoot; 7 p.m., Rev. A. Mason.
Westminster Abbey, 10 a.m. and 3 p.m., Very Rev. the Dean, Dr. Stanley; 7 p.m., the Bishop of Derry.
St. James's, noon, Hon. and Very Rev. Gerald V. Wellesley, Dean of Windsor, and Lord High Almoner.
Whitehall, 11 a.m., Rev. T. J. Bonney; 3 p.m., Rev. W. F. Erskine Knollys.
Chapel Royal, Savoy, 11.30 a.m., Right Rev. Bishop Piers Claughton, D.D., Chaplain-General of her Majesty's Forces; 7 p.m., Rev. James Fleming, B.D., Vicar of St. Michael's, Chester-square, and Hon. Chaplain to the Queen.
Temple Church, 11 a.m., Rev. Dr. Vaughan, the Master; 3 p.m., Rev. A. Ainger, the Reader.

MONDAY, MAY 21.

Whitsun Monday. Bank holiday.
Asiatic Society, anniversary, 3 p.m. Victoria Institute 8 p.m., anniversary.
Devon County Agricultural Association, meeting at Tavistock (three days).
Bedlington Poultry, Cat, and Dog Show (two days).
Athletic Sports: Great Marlow, Chesterfield, Norwich, St. Albans, Newark, Liverpool, Sunderland, Lancaster.
Races: Maidstone. Regattas: Junior Thames, Holyhead, and Plymouth.

TUESDAY, MAY 22.

Whitsun Tuesday. Trinity Term begins.
Agricultural Society, election of officers, &c., noon.
Royal Institution, 3 p.m. (Professor Dewar on the Philosophy of Sir Humphry Davy).
Gresham Lectures, 6 p.m. (Mr. Thomas Dallin on Rhetoric), and three following days.
West London Scientific Association, 8 p.m. (Dr. John Foulerton on the Causes of the Glacial Period).
Peace Society, anniversary, Finsbury Chapel, 6.30 p.m.
Regattas: Royal Alfred and Corinthian Yacht Clubs.
Anthropological Institute, 8 p.m. (Professor Boyd Dawkins on the Caves of Great Britain; papers by Professor McKenny Hughes and Mr. R. H. Tiddeman).
Medical and Chirurgical Society, 8.30 p.m.

WEDNESDAY, MAY 23.

Botanic Society, promenade, 3.30 p.m.
Society of Arts, 8 p.m. (Mr. A. J. Ellis on the Musical Pitch).
Geological Society, 8 p.m. (Admiral Spratt on the Coal-Bearing Deposits near Ereki, the ancient Heraclea, Pontus, Bithynia; papers by Mr. W. J. Sollas, Rev. T. G. Bonney, and Mr. S. Allport).
Royal Society of Literature, 8 p.m. (Rev. A. Castle Cleary on the Syllabic Bases of Words for an Improved Form of Dictionary).
Central Throat and Ear Hospital, hall at Willis's Rooms.
Royal Thames Yacht, first Cutter-Match, Gravesend.
Wolverhampton Poultry and Dog Show (three days).
Oxfordshire Agricultural Show, Banbury (two days).
Races: Wye. Regatta: Royal Thames Yacht Club.

THURSDAY, MAY 24.

Queen Victoria born, 1819.
Royal Institution, 3 p.m. (Professor Tyndall on Heat).
Zoological Gardens, 5 p.m. (Mr. P. L. Selator on the Lion-house).
Linnean Society, anniversary, 3 p.m. (The President's address on Recent Researches among Sarcoid Organisms).
Society for the Encouragement of the Fine Arts, 8 p.m. (conversazione with music).
Inventors' Institute, 8 p.m.
Regattas: Royal London and Royal Alfred Yacht Clubs.

FRIDAY, MAY 25.

Princess Helena born, 1846.
United Service Institution, 3 p.m. (Captain J. C. Colomb on Russian Development and our Naval and Military Position on the North Pacific).
Botanic Society, lecture, 4 p.m.
Architectural Association, 7.30 p.m. (Mr. J. P. St. Aubyn on Cornish Churches).
Quekett Microscopical Club, 8 p.m. Clinical Society, 8.30 p.m.
Royal Institution, 8 p.m. (Mr. G. J. Romanes on the Evolution of Nerves and Nerve Systems, 9 p.m.).
Sacred Harmonic Society, 7.30 p.m. (Spohr's "Last Judgment" and Mendelssohn's "Athalie").
Anniversaries: London Aged Christians' Society, Willis's Rooms, 3 p.m.; Church of Ireland Sustentation Fund, 3 p.m.
Rede Lecture, University of Cambridge (Sir C. Wyville Thomson on some of the Results of the Expedition of H.M.S. Challenger, 2.30 p.m.).
New Thames Yacht Club: First Cutter-Match, Gravesend.

SATURDAY, MAY 26.

Royal Institution, 3 p.m. (Mr. W. H. Pollock on Modern French Poetry—Victor Hugo).
Physical Society, 3 p.m. (Professors J. Perry and Ayrton on the Friction of Water, &c.; Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell on Spectroscopy).
Royal Cambridge Asylum for Soldiers' Widows, grand military concert, Royal Albert Hall, 3 p.m.
Royal Albert Hall Orchestral Society, third concert (for Shipwrecked Mariners' Benevolent Society), 8.30 p.m.
Athletic Sports: Christ's Hospital, King's College School Athletic Clubs, Lillie-bridge, &c.

SACRED HARMONIC SOCIETY, Exeter Hall.
Conductor, Sir Michael Costa.—LAST PERFORMANCE THIS SEASON.—FRIDAY NEXT, MAY 25, at 7.30. Spohr's LAST JUDGMENT and Mendelssohn's ATHALIE. Madame Sinico, Miss Larkcom, Madame Poole, Mr. Henry Guy, and Mr. Lewis Thomas. Organist, Mr. Willing. Tickets, 3s., 5s.; Area Rows (numbered), 7s.; Stalls 10s. 6d., at 6, Exeter Hall.

MUSICAL UNION.—PAPINI.—Last time this Season with SAINT SAENS, from Paris.—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, ST. JAMES'S HALL, MAY 29.—Quartets, Mozart and Beethoven, and Saint Saens, piano, &c. Tickets, 7s. 6d. each, to be had of Lucas and Co., and Olivier, Bond-street; and Austin, St. James's Hall. Visitors can pay at the Regent-street entrance.
Prof. ELLA, Director.

MR. and Mrs. GERMAN REED'S ENTERTAINMENT.
Twice on Whit Monday, at Three and Eight.—TWO FOSTER BROTHERS; EDWIN AND ANGELINA; and "No. 204," by F. C. Burmand. EVERY EVENING, except Thursday and Saturday, at Eight: every Thursday and Saturday at Three. Admission, 1s., 2s.; Stalls, 3s. and 5s.—ST. GEORGE'S HALL, Langham-place, Oxford-circuit.

RUSSIA AND TURKEY.

A SPECIAL WAR NUMBER OF THE ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS

WILL BE ISSUED

NEXT WEDNESDAY, MAY 23.

The publication of this War Number has been unavoidably deferred to Wednesday, the 23rd inst., on account of the great number required.

It will be profusely Illustrated with Engravings of Scenes in Russia and Turkey, and the Frontier Countries in Europe and Asia; Sketches of the Manners, Customs, and Every-Day Life of the People; and Portraits of Leading Men on both sides; and will be accompanied by

A LARGE MAP OF THE SEAT OF WAR, PRINTED IN COLOURS.

The Number will contain Articles on THE ARMIES OF THE CONTENDING POWERS AND A DESCRIPTION OF THE THEATRE OF WAR, BY LIEUT.-COLONEL HENRY BRACKENBURY, R.A.:

THE NAVIES OF THE CONTENDING POWERS, BY E. J. REED, C.B., LATE CHIEF CONSTRUCTOR OF H.M. NAVY;

A TOUR IN RUSSIA, BY AN OLD RESIDENT; AND THE ADMINISTRATION OF TURKEY.

The War Number will be published apart from the ordinary Issue of the ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS, and will be inclosed in a neat wrapper.

PRICE ONE SHILLING.

By Post in the United Kingdom a Halfpenny extra.

No more Advertisements for this War Number can be received.

Office, 198, Strand, W. C.

THE WEATHER.

RESULTS OF METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS AT THE NEW OBSERVATORY OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY. Lat. 51° 28' 6" N.; Long. 0° 18' 47" W.; Height above Sea, 34 feet.

DAY.	DAILY MEANS OF					THERMOM.		WIND.		General Direction.	Movement in 24 hours, read at 10 a.m. next morning.	Rain in 24 hours, read at 10 a.m. next morning.
	Barometer Corrected.	Temperature of the Air.	Dew Point.	Relative Humidity.	Amount of Cloud.	Maximum, read at 10 p.m.	Minimum, read at 10 p.m.					
May 10	29.469	54.3	43.5	66	6	62.8	45.8	E. S. S.E.	232	0.010		
11	29.513	50.7	40.1	69	8	62.9	45.8	SW. S.	205	.065		
12	29.518	49.1	47.7	95	7	61.0	45.9	S.E. E. S.	85	.215		
13	29.534	49.9	46.2	91	10	56.9	41.8	S. S.E.	50	.200		
14	29.667	51.2	45.7	83	—	59.1	47.8	S.E. W. W.	91	.030		
15	29.607	49.5	47.6	94	10	56.9	44.5	SW. S. E.	129	.215		
16	29.883	53.3	41.4	66	5	63.2	49.6	E. W. W.S.W.	220	0.030		

The following are the readings of the meteorological instruments for the above days, in order, at ten o'clock a.m. :—

Barometer (in inches) corrected	29.480	29.536	29.705	29.529	29.653	29.614	29.806
Temperature of Air	56.1°	56.4°	50.8°	51.6°	51.7°	51.7°	53.6°
Temperature of Evaporation	51.5°	50.2°	48.5°	49.6°	49.8°	49.8°	49.7°
Direction of Wind	S.	SW.	SE.	SSE.	N.	ESE.	W.

TIMES OF HIGH WATER AT LONDON BRIDGE FOR THE WEEK ENDING MAY 26.

Sunday.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
h m	h m	h m	h m	h m	h m	h m
7 10	7 45	8 20	8 56	9 34	10 18	10 59

WHITSUNTIDE HOLIDAYS.

ST. JAMES'S HALL, PICCADILLY. DURING THE WHIT WEEK

THE MOORE AND BURGESS MINSTRELS

will give Performances in the following order—
WHIT-MONDAY, at THREE and EIGHT.
WHIT-TUESDAY, at THREE and EIGHT.
WEDNESDAY, at THREE and EIGHT.
THURSDAY, at EIGHT ONLY.
FRIDAY, at EIGHT ONLY.
SATURDAY, at THREE and EIGHT.
The present Programme is unquestionably the most brilliant and attractive ever introduced by this Company.

WHITSUN HOLIDAYS.

THE MOORE AND BURGESS MINSTRELS will give FOUR DAY PERFORMANCES at ST. JAMES'S HALL during the Whitsun Week—viz., WHIT-MONDAY AFTERNOON, TUESDAY, WEDNESDAY, and SATURDAY. Each day at Three. In addition to the regular performance Every Night at Eight. Magnificent Programme for the Holidays.

WHITSUN HOLIDAY WEEK.

ST. JAMES'S HALL, PICCADILLY. THE MOORE AND BURGESS MINSTRELS

EXTRAORDINARILY SUCCESSFUL BURLESQUE ON THE MARVELLOUS GIRARDS, pronounced by the entire metropolitan press one of the best and most clever burlesques ever produced, will be presented at every Performance throughout the Holiday Week.

MONDAY, at THREE and EIGHT.
TUESDAY, at THREE and EIGHT.
WEDNESDAY, at THREE and EIGHT.
THURSDAY, at EIGHT in the EVENING ONLY.
FRIDAY, at EIGHT in the EVENING ONLY.
SATURDAY, at THREE and EIGHT.

WHITSUN HOLIDAYS.

ST. JAMES'S HALL, PICCADILLY. THE NOVEL AND REALLY BEAUTIFUL OPERATIC MELANGE, Just produced by the

MOORE AND BURGESS MINSTRELS, WILL BE PRESENTED AT EVERY PERFORMANCE DURING THE WHITSUN HOLIDAYS. Fauteuils, 5s.; Sofa Stalls, 3s.; Area, 2s.; Gallery, 1s. No fees, no charge for programmer, no charge for booking seats.

HALF-GUINEA SEASON TICKETS for ALEXANDRA PALACE now ready, admitting to Grand Rose Show, Saturday Popular Concerts, Fireworks, Operas, Summer and Autumn Race Meetings, Flower Shows, Trooping Meetings, Dramas; Dog, Poultry, and other Shows; Ballad Concerts; Swimming, Athletic, Fire Brigade, and other Competitions; Baden-Baden Concerts; Great Horse Show, Venetian Fêtes, Bicycle-Races, and innumerable other popular entertainments, until April 30 next year.

ALEXANDRA PALACE, WHIT-MONDAY.

Palace and Park open for Admission from Nine till Nine. Continuous Amusements. Grotesques, &c., in Theatre.
12.0 to 4.30—Webb's Clown Cricketers and Military Bands.
12.0, 6.0, and 9.15—Mr. Frederick Archer on the Great Organ.
12.30, 2.30, 4.30, and 6.30—Weldon's Great Circus.
1.0, 3.15, 6.15, and 8.45—Mr. Howard Paul's Entertainment.
1.30—Coldstream Guards' Band on Terrace.
1.30—Lulu, the Dugros, the Daniels Brothers, and D'Alvini on Central Stage. No Reserved Seats.
1.45 and 4.15—Joe Brown's Minstrels in Concert-Room.
3.0—Espinoza's Ballet, "Les Sentinelles," Harcourt, the Protean, Leonce, and Grotesques, &c., in Theatre.
3.30—GRAND CONCERT: Miss EDITH WYNNE, Mr. VERNON RIGBY, Mr. Thurley Beale. Combined Military Bands, &c. A few Reserved Seats, 1s. only.
4.30—Jullien's British Army Quadrilles, with Military Brass Bands, Drums and Pipes, &c.
4.15—Sack Hurdle-Racing, Pony Trotting against Pony, Man and Bicycle, &c., on Sports Ground.
5.30—THE INIMITABLE MACKNEY, Alexandrini, Madlle. Collins, and other popular Performers in Theatre.
5.30—Comic Balloon Race between the "Owl and the Fish."
5.45—Ascent of Mr. John Morton to Great Balloon, "The Alexandra."
6.30—Grand Artillery Band. Special Military Programme.
7.30—Lulu, the Dugros, Ethereal Wire-Walking, &c., in Great Central Hall.
8.45—Illumination of the Grove.
9.15—Great Organ Performance.

CRYSTAL PALACE PICTURE-GALLERY.—Open all the year round for the Reception and Sale of Pictures by the British and Foreign Schools. For particulars, apply to Mr. C. W. WASS, Crystal Palace.

THE SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER COLOURS. The EIGHTY-EIGHTH EXHIBITION is NOW OPEN, 5, Pall-Mall East, from Nine till Seven. Admission, 1s.; Catalogue, 6d. ALFRED D. FRIPP, Secretary.

INSTITUTE OF PAINTERS IN WATER-COLOURS. THE FORTY-THIRD ANNUAL EXHIBITION is NOW OPEN, from Nine till Dusk. Admission, 1s.; Catalogue, 6d. H. F. PHILLIPS, Secretary.

ELIJAH WALTON.—EXHIBITION OF WATER-COLOUR DRAWINGS—EGYPT, NUBIA, and THE NILE; with a number of fine Alpine and other Works—NOW OPEN, at BURLINGTON GALLERY, 191, Piccadilly. Ten to Six. Admission (including Catalogue), 1s.

DORE'S GREAT WORKS, "CHRIST LEAVING THE PRÆTORIUM," "CHRIST ENTERING THE TEMPLE" and "BATTLE OF ASCALON," each 33 by 21 ft.: with "Dream of Pilate's Wife," "Christian Martyrs," &c., at the DORE GALLERY, 35, New Bond-street. Daily, Ten to Six. 1s.

DORE'S NEW GREAT WORK, THE BRAZEN SERPENT, 30 ft. by 19 ft., is NOW ADDED to the DORE GALLERY, 35, New Bond-street, W.

OLYMPIC.—THE SCUTTLED SHIP. By CHARLES READE. EVERY EVENING, at 7.30. Powerful Company and Effects. Box-office hours Eleven to Five. No booking fees.

THEATRE ROYAL, LYCEUM.—Lessee and Manager, Mrs. Bateman.—EVERY EVENING, at Eight. Drama arranged by Mr. Charles Reade, from "Le Corrier de Lyon," entitled THE LYONS MAIL, in which Mr. HENRY IRVING will sustain the dual characters of Lesurques (the victim) and Dubosc (the robber). Messrs. Meade, Brooke, Lyons, Tyars, Huntley, &c.; Misses Virginia Frances, Lydia Howard, and Isabel Bateman. Scenery by Hawes Craven; Music by R. Steerel. At 7.15, INTRIGUE.

QUEEN'S THEATRE, Long-acre.—Lessee, Mr. J. C. Bennett; Manager, Mr. Frederic R. Rutt.—RIVIERE'S SERIES OF SUMMER PROMENADE CONCERTS will COMMENCE TO-NIGHT, SATURDAY, MAY 19, when the following celebrated Artists will appear:—Madame Edith Wynne, Antoinette Sterling, Ida Servais (the Belgian Prima Donna, her first appearance in England), Cora Stuart, Mathilde Zimeri, and Vernet Lafleur (French Chansonnète-la-Judic Singer, her first appearance in London), Signor Bellini, and M. Cornells, Solo and Violinist, Professor of the Brussels Conservatoire; also Jeanne Douste, the Infant Pianiste, Grand Orchestra and Band of Scots Guards. A New Grand March, "The Queen's," composed expressly by M. Riviere, will be performed for the first time. Engagements have also been made with Mr. Barton McGuckin, the favourite Tenor; Mlle. Boilemont, Piano Soloist, winner of the first prize at the Paris Conservatoire, and other Artists, who will appear on WHIT MONDAY and during the Week. Magnificent and most novel Decorations by Messrs. DeLaires and Son, Dick Radcliffe and Co., and J. Edgington and Co. A luxurious Smoking-Saloon is attached to the Promenade. Conductor, M. Riviere; Assistant Conductor, Mr. Alfred Cellier. Grand Promenade, 1s.; Private Boxes, 10s. 6d. to Two Guineas; First Circle 2s. 6d.; Orchestra Stalls and Second Circle, 2s. Box-Office open daily from Eleven to Five.

THE ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS.

LONDON: SATURDAY, MAY 19, 1877.

If we ask ourselves what is the benefit that has resulted from the five nights' Debate in the House of Commons on the Eastern Question most of us will be disposed to admit that the answer is not to be found in the figures of the Division List. The amendment proposed to Mr. Gladstone's first Resolution, and which was carried by so large a majority, was purely negative in its character, and almost purely one that was decided upon party lines. The House declined to entertain any resolutions which "might embarrass her Majesty's Government in the maintenance of peace and in the protection of British interests without indicating any alternative line of policy." It is quite clear that from such an Amendment, even although carried by a very large majority, no conclusions can be drawn, either by foreigners or by ourselves, as to the action which her Majesty's Government has taken upon itself to pursue. The discussion, however, which seemingly reached so insignificant a goal, was itself pervaded, both directly and indirectly, by average public opinion. There were certain positions which in the light of it may now be regarded as tenable; and, in spite of the vagueness of the formulated conclusion, as permanently adopted by the country.

In the first place, the past is past. The traditional policy of England in regard to Turkey is at an end. It is so because it has become simply impossible. No Power can now maintain, in the sense in which the words were formerly understood, "the independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire." No Power, however willing, can henceforward restore it. It is gone. The ruling system of the Pashas is, for all purposes of government, virtually extinct. The influence of what for upwards of a century had been axiomatic in the British Foreign Office may still linger about the place and impart some bias to its official staff. But it is quite clear, even from the tone adopted by the leading speakers from the Front Ministerial Bench, that no Cabinet, Conservative or Liberal, can propose to stand upon "the ancient ways." That phase of National Policy has disappeared; and it is certainly remarkable how small an account was taken of it on either side in the course of the debate. The confusion of thought which has prevailed in respect of the Treaty of 1856 has been succeeded by much clearer ideas on this head.

Turkey is nothing to us, nor we to Turkey, where British interests are not placed in peril. She has chosen her own lot. She has provoked her own doom. So far as she is concerned, the obligations which rested upon us have ceased to be binding.

But how about the present? Here also, if we look to the debate rather than to the amendment in the adoption of which it ended, there is a virtual agreement between all parties. Absolute neutrality in the present conflict between Russia and Turkey is the landmark towards which the vessel of State must be steered. We are to take no part with Russia—still less, if possible, with Turkey—in the struggle which they are waging with the whole force of their respective Empires. Circumstances may make it more difficult than it at first seems to maintain this position, but we shall do this in harmony with the other Christian States of Europe. Nor will this prevent our watching for the first suitable opening that may present itself for tendering our good offices with a view of shortening the conflict. With this limitation, however, if limitation it can be regarded, we have given the world an assurance that we will treat both combatants with strict impartiality. Some men's sympathies may tend in one direction, some in the opposite one; but as regards the action of our Government and the application to the belligerents of International Law, Rights, and Usages, the Proclamation of Neutrality issued by the Queen will, to all intents and purposes, be treated with due homage. The Turk can hardly understand this as yet. He has not wholly given up his hope that England may even yet be induced, for the sake of her own interests, or what is imagined she supposes to be such, to come to his aid against the colossal foe. But this the course of the debate showed to be impracticable. Public opinion in Great Britain has been so strongly pronounced that any deviation by the Government from absolute neutrality, however subtle, would be sure to be promptly detected and speedily denounced.

Then with regard to the future. This war will come to an end. If the issue of it be in favour of Turkey (which is hardly conceivable) Europe will have to groan for some few years onward over a state of things which she strongly reprobates, only to assume, at some not distant period, a tone of authority to which the Ottoman Empire, willing or unwilling, will be compelled to yield. If, however, which is far more likely, the might of Russia should give her the advantage over her adversary, then we are not to be alarmed by the changes that may ensue. As the Marquis of Hartington truly and picturesquely remarked, "There is no power which can restore the sap and vigour to the lifeless trunk, and there is no power which can check the growth of the living, although struggling, tree. The Turkish domination is the lifeless trunk, the struggling Nationalities are the living tree; and this House is asked to assert that with these Nationalities, and not with the remnant of a shameful past, are the sympathies of the British Nation." When the United Powers of Europe come to deal with the results of the war, as most probably they will, this, we trust, will be borne in mind. Life cannot be given to the dead by any human intervention. But the aspirations, political and social, of living peoples may be aided by wise counsels and guided to beneficial ends. The problem tends to solve itself. The debate in the House of Commons will, when the time comes, be found to have cast upon it a new and varied light. All concern for British interests will, perhaps, by the end of the war, have merged itself into a broader view of the interests of Europe and of humanity; and the richest Provinces in the South-Eastern quarter of the Continent will be judged worthy of such a political and administrative Government as may serve to develop, educate, and consolidate the highest qualities of which its population can boast.

THE COURT.

The Queen attended Divine service on Sunday in the private chapel of Windsor Castle. The Rev. H. Montagu Butler, D.D., Head Master of Harrow School, officiated. The Duchess of Edinburgh came to London and attended Divine service at the Russian Chapel, Welbeck-street, and afterwards visited the Prince of Wales at Marlborough House, returning to Windsor in the afternoon.

Her Majesty held a Council on Monday, at which were present Prince Leopold, the Duke of Richmond and Gordon, the Earl of Beaconsfield, Earl Beauchamp, and the Earl of Bradford. The Duke of Richmond and Gordon and the Earl of Beaconsfield had audiences of the Queen. Princess Beatrice came to London and was present at the Philharmonic Society's morning concert at St. James's Hall, after which she returned to Windsor. Prince Leopold was present in the evening at the Wagner Festival at the Royal Albert Hall. He returns to Windsor the next day.

Princess Christian Victor and Albert and Princesses Victoria and Louise, children of Prince and Princess Christian of Schleswig-Holstein, visited the Queen on Tuesday. The Judge Advocate-General had an audience of her Majesty.

The Duchess of Edinburgh and Princess Beatrice visited St. Andrew's Convalescent Hospital at Clewer on Wednesday. The Queen has paid daily visits to Princess Christian at Cumberland Lodge.

Her Majesty has received at dinner during the week Prince Christian, the Earl and Countess of Ellesmere, Earl and Countess Grosvenor, the Countess of March, the Countess of Gainsborough, the Earl of Carnarvon, Earl and Countess Sydney, Viscount Harwarden, Lady Waterpark, Lieutenant-General Sir T. M. Biddulph and the Hon. Lady Biddulph, Colonel the Hon. and Mrs. William Edward Sackville West, Lord Bloomfield, Captain Lord Algernon Gordon-Lennox

(Grenadier Guards), Captain Sir William Hewett, Mr. John F. Campbell of Islay, and Captain and the Hon. Mrs. Haig.

The Duke of Connaught and Strathearn visited her Majesty on Thursday week, previous to his departure for Dublin. The Prince Imperial also visited the Queen.

The Duchess of Edinburgh and Princess Beatrice came to London on Saturday last and visited Princess Louise of Lorne at Kensington Palace, after which they were present at the concert given by Herr Wagner at the Royal Albert Hall.

The Queen has directed that a pension of £75 per annum should be granted to each of the three Misses De Foe, the lineal descendants of the author of "Robinson Crusoe."

Lady Waterpark has succeeded Lady Churchill as Lady in Waiting to the Queen.

Her Majesty's birthday will be kept on Saturday, June 2. The Prince of Wales will hold a Levée at St. James's Palace, on behalf of her Majesty, on Thursday, June 7. State concerts will be given at Buckingham Palace on Wednesdays, June 6 and 27. State balls will take place at Buckingham Palace on Wednesday, June 20, and on Friday, July 6.

THE PRINCE OF WALES.

The Prince of Wales, accompanied by Princess Louise of Lorne, went to Windsor on Thursday week and lunched with the Queen. The Duchess of Edinburgh lunched with the Prince on Sunday at Marlborough House. His Royal Highness was present at an evening party given by the Duchess of Westminster on Monday at Grosvenor House. On Tuesday the Prince, president of the Royal Commission for the Paris Universal Exhibition of 1878, presided over a meeting of the finance committee of her Majesty's Commissioners at Marlborough House. On Wednesday his Royal Highness was present at the meeting of the Coaching Club in Hyde Park, and accompanied Lord Arthur Somerset on his drag to the Orleans Club, Twickenham; and in the evening he went to the Criterion Theatre. The Prince, with Prince Leopold, Princess Louise of Lorne and the Marquis of Lorne, the Duke of Cambridge, and the Duke and Duchess of Teck, has been present at the several Wagner concerts at the Royal Albert Hall. His Royal Highness, accompanied by Princess Louise and the Marquis of Lorne, has inspected Mr. Frank Dillon's collection of Japanese drawings at Messrs. Agnew's Gallery, in Waterloo-place; and also Mr. Marsden's galleries, to view Mr. Millais's picture of "Effie Deans." Sir Noel Paton's picture of "Christ, the Good Shepherd," has been submitted to the Prince.

Princess Christian of Schleswig-Holstein has so far received that no bulletins have been issued since Tuesday.

Princess Louise (Marchioness) and the Marquis of Lorne dined with the Duke and Duchess of Westminster on Saturday at Grosvenor House. The Princess, accompanied by the Marquis of Lorne, on Tuesday formally opened a fancy sale, held at the Riding School, Knightsbridge, by permission of the Duke of Wellington, in aid of the funds of the National Hospital for the Paralysed and Epileptic, Queen-street, Bloomsbury. On Wednesday the Princess reopened the Royal Infirmary for Children and Women in Waterloo Bridge-road.

The Duke of Cambridge dined with the Duke and Duchess of Cleveland on Saturday last at Cleveland House.

His Excellency Count Beust had a dinner party on Saturday at the Austrian Embassy, Belgrave-square.

The Marquis and Marchioness of Salisbury had a dinner party on Saturday at the family mansion in Arlington-street, after which the Marchioness had an assembly.

The Marchioness of Lansdowne held a reception on Tuesday night, at Lansdowne House, Berkeley-square.

A reception at the Foreign Office on Wednesday night was very numerously attended. In the absence of the Countess of Derby, who, with Lady Margaret Cecil, is abroad, the guests were received by the Earl of Derby and the Countess of Galloway, representing her mother.

The Somersetshire ball took place at Willis's Rooms, on Monday. Upwards of 330 guests were present.

The annual grand Caledonian fancy-dress ball is appointed to take place on June 25, at Willis's Rooms.

THE TRANSVAAL PROVINCE.

The very recent annexation of this large South African territory, which was lately an independent Dutch Republic, to the dominions of her Majesty Queen Victoria, including the Cape Colony, with the Eastern Province, British Kaffraria, Natal, and Griqualand, is a rather important event. We have described the Transvaal country, which is situated quite inland, with its eastern boundary nearly a hundred miles from the seacoast of Delagoa Bay. Its southern boundary, formed by the Vaal River, divides it from the Orange Free State, next to which lie the provinces of Basutoland and Natal, under British rule, and the country of the wild Zulus, bordering on the Natal province. It is the inability of the Dutch Boers, in the Transvaal, to defend themselves against the Zulu Kaffirs, whose hostility they had rashly challenged, that has obliged the British Government to take charge of this additional territory. In the House of Lords on Monday evening the Earl of Carnarvon read a despatch just received from Sir Bartle Frere, Governor of the Cape Colony, dated the 25th ult., announcing the terms of the annexation, which had been arranged by Sir Theophilus Shepstone, the British Commissioner. His proclamation in the Transvaal was issued on the 12th ult., in which he first recites his commission and sketches the history of the existing disorder and anarchy; and then refers to the wishes of the inhabitants that the country be taken under British protection. He declares the territory henceforth British, but continues the existing Courts. The Transvaal will remain a separate Government. The Queen's new subjects are to enjoy reasonable legislative privileges. Arrangements will be made for optional use of the Dutch language; existing laws are to remain until altered by competent legislative authority. Government officers able and willing to serve are continued in office; bona-fide concessions and contracts of State to be honourably maintained; payment of State debt to be provided for. Another proclamation notifies his assumption of office as Administrator of Transvaal. The inhabitants are reported to acquiesce willingly in the new order of things. The necessity for annexation seems to be generally recognised as the inevitable result of disorganisation in the Republic. It appears that the proclamation was recognised as being in a conciliatory spirit, and that the state of affairs in the Transvaal was one of quiet. The proclamation was publicly read at Pretoria, Potchefstroom, Leydenburg, Rustenburg, and Middleburg. The late President of the Republic, Mr. Burgers, has recorded a solemn protest, and two of the Dutch citizens are sent to England by the Opposition party, to remonstrate with the British Government against the annexation. Our Illustrations present views of the scenery of the Speckboom and Crocodile rivers, in the Transvaal territory; we shall give some others next week.

THE CHURCH.

PREFERMENTS AND APPOINTMENTS.

Allott, Joseph, to be Rector of Crocombe.
Bone, William; Perpetual Curate of Lemsford.
Bradshaw, William; Perpetual Curate of Smalley.
Brown, Edgar; Vicar of Cadney-cum-Howsham.
Cargill, R. J.; Vicar of High Olney, Staffordshire.
Cholmondeley, H. P.; Honorary Canon of Gloucester.
Cooper, Astley; Chaplain of Hickey's Charity, Richmond, Surrey.
Croft, R. C. W.; Vicar of Blachard.
Day, Alfred George; Rector of Melton St. Mary and All Saints', Norfolk.
George, J. Bethel; Vicar of Posenhall, Suffolk.
Graham, Thomas; Vicar of St. James's, Bristol.
Griffith, John; Rector of Neath; Archdeacon and Canon of Llandaff.
Grigson, W. S.; Rector of Whinbergh-with-Westfield, Norfolk.
Haslehurst, Richard K.; Rector of West Felton; Rural Dean of Ellesmere.
Jackson, R. H.; Vicar of St. Paul's, Worcester.
Johns, Thomas; Vicar of Llanwnda, Pembroke.
Knight, Joseph; Vicar of Morland, Westmoreland.
Ley, Arthur Baines Merriman; Perpetual Curate of Barmer, Norfolk.
Lysons, Daniel George; Rector of Rodmarton.
Morgan, Hugh; Vicar of Rhyl, Flintshire; Archdeacon of St. Asaph and Residential Canon in St. Asaph Cathedral.
Morgan, John; Vicar of Humberstone.
Morris, Ambrose; Rector of St. Thomas's, Woolwich.
Norgate, Edward; Rector of Barlow, Cambs.
Plant, Samuel; Vicar of Weston-on-Trent; Rural Dean of Stafford.
Ricketts, R. R.; Vicar of St. Matthew's, Hayfield.
Roworth, L. D.; Vicar of Clarendon-with-St. Saviour, Clarendon.
Seabrook, J. Pledge; Chaplain to H.M. Forces.
Sedgwick, Gordon; Perpetual Curate of St. Mark's, Coventry.
Seymour, Albert Eden; Vicar of Barnstable.
Spencer, William; Perpetual Curate of St. Paul's, Stratford.
Symonds, A. R.; Curate in Charge; Vicar of Walmer, Deal.
Thoyts, Ernest; Vicar of Honington, Warwick.
Trye, Charles Brandon; Honorary Canon of Gloucester Cathedral.
Vyvyan, Vyell Donnithorne; Rector of Withiel, Cornwall.
White, Joseph Henry; Vicar of Weybread, Suffolk.
Williams, Thomas Vincent; Perpetual Curate of St. John the Evangelist, King's Lynn, Norfolk.
Wordsworth, Christopher; Rector of Glaston.—*Guardian*.

The Right Rev. Dr. T. L. Claughton, Bishop of Rochester, is gazetted to the newly-founded bishopric of St. Albans.

The Rev. R. J. Cargill has received from the parishioners of Barton-under-Needwood, on his leaving the curacy, a silver salver and a purse containing £100.

A reredos, designed by Mr. Withers, spanning the whole width of chancel, has been added to the east end of the parish church of Biggleswade.

The clerestory windows on the south side of Cheddar church, each containing two lights, have been filled with painted glass, the gift of Miss Mules, daughter of the late Rev. John Mules, for many years the highly respected Vicar of Ilminster. The glass is by Mr. A. Gibbs.

Tuesday's *Gazette* announces the appointment of the Rev. Edward Tucker Leeke, M.A., to the chancellorship founded in the cathedral church of Lincoln, and to the second canonry of the cathedral church of Lincoln, void by the promotion of Dr. Benson to the bishopric of Truro.

The parish church of Ashby-de-la-Zouch is to be restored. Mr. Abney Hastings, the lord of the manor, has offered £1000 for this purpose; and at a meeting held, under the presidency of the Earl of Loudoun, on Monday, the list of subscriptions was increased to £2678.

The corner-stone of a new church at Lottisham, in the diocese of Bath and Wells, was laid on the 5th inst., by the Rev. A. Goldney, Rural Dean, and patron of the benefice. The site was given by the Rev. Dr. Jenkyns, who is also a liberal contributor to the building fund.

St. Leonard's, Exeter, was reopened on Sunday, the 6th inst., after receiving the addition of a new chancel, the foundation-stone of which was laid by the Earl of Northbrook in August last, in remembrance of his safe return from India. A friend of the Rector has promised £1000 towards the further improvement of the church, which Lord Northbrook pronounced on the occasion in question to be "the bloom of ugliness."—On the 8th inst. a new chancel was consecrated at Crookham by the Bishop of Guildford.

The Rev. Arthur Tooth, who was inhibited from the performance of Divine worship at St. James's, Hatcham, until he should signify his obedience to the judgment of the Court of Arches, returned from the Continent last week, and on Saturday wrote to his churchwarden that he would celebrate the communion in St. James's Church at eight o'clock on Sunday morning. This was the means of assembling a large congregation, before whom Mr. Tooth officiated in highly decorated vestments, and with all the usages of the Ritualistic party. Towards the close of the service, Mr. Fry, the people's warden, arrived with two constables, and some interruption occurred, but the service was continued to the end.

Judgment was given by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council on the Folkestone Ritual Case last Saturday. The decisions of the Arches Court against the use of vestments by the parochial clergy, and the employment of the crucifix under circumstances which suggest the danger of superstitious reverence, were confirmed; but the decree of the Judge was reversed so far as concerns both the eastward position and the use of wafer bread. The Committee have decided that the priest may adopt the eastward position without penal consequences if he so stands as to allow communicants to see, if they wish, the breaking of the bread; and that though the wafer, properly so called, would be illegal, there is no prohibition of the use of bread made in the form of circular wafers.

THE UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

At Oxford the Stanhope Prize for a historical essay (subject, "The Marquess Wellesley") has been awarded to C. H. Firth, Scholar of Balliol. The subject for next year is "The Political Theories of Dante." The Lothian Prize, for an historical essay upon "The Place of Iceland in the History of European Institutions," has been awarded to Mr. C. A. B. Conybeare, B.A., Junior Student of Christ Church; Mr. T. F. Tout, Scholar of Balliol, being recommended for a present of books.

At Cambridge the Adams Prize has been awarded to E. J. Routh, M.A., of St. Peter's College. The gaieties of the May Term began on Tuesday with the flower show in the Trinity Paddocks in the afternoon, and the boat-races began on Wednesday evening. The members of the Senate have received from the syndicate appointed to conduct the higher local examinations a report to the effect that the examination in religious knowledge is shirked by a large proportion of the candidates. They recommend a change, so that this examination shall affect the general success of the candidates.

At Durham the University Association History Prize (History of the First Century in its Bearing on Christianity) has been awarded to W. D. Lawson, University College. Proxime accessit, F. H. J. Williams, University College.

The Dean and Chapter of Durham have conferred the mastership of Northallerton School upon the Rev. W. E. Scott.

Mr. G. Witherspoon has been appointed to the second mastership of the Carmarthen Grammar School.

Messrs. John David B. Faber, Mark Pole, and Henry Philippe Henderson, have been appointed inspectors of schools.



THE TRANSVAAL PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA: CROCODILE RIVER VALLEY.



THE TRANSVAAL PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA: SPECKBOOM RIVER, NEAR PILGRIM'S REST.



THE WAR: THE FIRST CANNON-SHOT ON THE DANUBE.
FROM A SKETCH BY ONE OF OUR SPECIAL ARTISTS.



THE WAR: TURKISH PRISONER ON THE ROAD FROM THE PRUTH TO RAGATZ.
FROM A SKETCH BY ONE OF OUR SPECIAL ARTISTS.

THE WAR.

Since our last week's record of the progress of the great struggle, as yet only just commenced, between Russia and Turkey, there have been several important, or at least startling, events reported to us by telegraph. We have thus been informed of the destruction of a Turkish monitor on the Danube, a sharp engagement near Batoum on the Black Sea, and the invasion of the Russian coast, at Soukhoum Kaleh, by a party of exiled Circassians, with some Turks, to stir up an insurrection in the Caucasus. The following is an account, by the special correspondent of the *Daily News*, of the first-named event:—

"On Friday afternoon the Turkish turret-ship, the same whose passage up the stream recently terrified Galatz, steamed out from Matchin, followed by two gun-boats, and at half-past three was stationary under cover of the wooded end of the island, with its three masts visible above the trees. The Russian gunners from the batteries close to Braila, below the Roumanian barracks, opened fire from their light guns, the range being about four kilometres, but without effect. The general officer present gave directions for two 8-in. guns of position, mounted in the battery, to come into action. The first shot had no effect. The second shot, fired at a high elevation with a low charge, dropped on the deck of the turret-ship, and must have crushed down into the powder-magazine. Immediately a tremendous flash and glare shot up from the interior of the doomed craft, followed by a heavy white smoke which hung like a pall. Through this white cloud there shot up to a great height a spurt of black fragments of all shapes and sizes. When the smoke drifted away all that was visible of the turret-ship was her stern, with the mizenmast standing, whence still fluttered the Turkish flag. The ship had gone down by the head in shallow water. The fore and main masts were blown out at once. Two Russian steam-launches put off from Braila, boarded the wreck, gained the flag, gathered some of the debris, and picked up two men, the fireman and the engineer, both severely injured. One has since died. The other is still alive in the hospital. He reports the turret-ship to have had a crew of 200 men, under the command of Kezim Bey. Fragments of the wreck were picked up down the stream at Galatz. The Russian enthusiasm in the battery was intense, and the officers embraced each other."

Other accounts contend that the Russian shell had nothing to do with the destruction of the ship, which, it is affirmed, blew up owing to accidental explosion in the gunner's store-house; but as only one man survives, all that is clear is that the ship is blown to pieces. The name of the turret-ship was the *Lutifideli*. Its armament was five guns. The captain was on shore. The flag of this Turkish ironclad sunk off Braila has, at the Czar's request, been forwarded to St. Petersburg, where it will be placed in the chapel of the palace as the first trophy of the war.

Of the battle in Asia Minor the correspondent of the *Daily Telegraph*, who says he was an eye-witness throughout its progress, forwards the following descriptive despatch dated Batoum, Friday, midnight:—"At about five o'clock this morning the Russian forces, which had been largely augmented for the purpose, advanced with batteries of field artillery, and made a furious attack upon the heights defending Batoum on the land side, which were occupied by Bashi-Bazouks. The Ottoman troops were intrenched in their usual effective manner upon the slopes and ledges of these hills, and on the advance of the enemy they opened on his columns a terrible and well-sustained fire of cannon and musketry, which literally mowed the Russians down in swathes. They fell by scores and hundreds on the plain below the Turkish positions, and during their attempts to make way against this fire a body of Turkish horse and foot, taking advantage of the thick forest on the mountain side, broke forth upon the flank of the Russian column, and effected a great slaughter—the Muscovites being upon ground perfectly open, and having no choice but to fight or fly. In a short time the spot which was the scene of this flank movement became covered with dead and dying Russians; but the enemy quickly brought up reinforcements, and the battle was renewed with much determination. For many hours the efforts of the assailants were desperately maintained, but towards midday their artillery fire gradually slackened, and they at length withdrew after suffering very considerable losses. I was myself an eye-witness of this important engagement from first to last; and I can testify that the Ottoman soldiers behaved with a gallantry which was most admirable. They had, however, during a great part of the action the advantage of their intrenchments on the high ground, and it is due to this fact, no doubt, that their losses, compared to those inflicted upon the enemy, were insignificant."

With regard to the affair of Soukhoum Kaleh, which is a Russian seaport and fort on the east coast of the Black Sea, a hundred miles north of Batoum, it is certain that a Turkish squadron of ironclads, under Hassan Pasha, bombarded the place on Sunday last, and that a landing was effected. The Russian despatches, however, say that the Turks were repulsed; the despatches on the Turkish side affirm that the attack was successful, that the town was burned, and that the Abkassian native population have joined the Turks against the Russians. The following account is sent by the *Daily Telegraph* correspondent in Turkey:—

"About three weeks ago five leading Circassian chiefs started from Constantinople for Batoum. Their names were Hadji Hussein Bey, Mandkambek Bey, Manemin Bey, Hadji Ali Bey, and Mehemet Bey. They had arranged a carefully considered plan of action with the Ottoman authorities and their own countrymen. Arrived at Batoum, they went on board the squadron of Hassan Pasha, who forthwith sailed with five ironclads for the Russian port and fortress of Soukhoum Kaleh. The Turkish men-of-war made their destination in the darkness of early morning, casting anchor a little after three o'clock a.m. They at once landed the Circassian chieftains, with a party of men carrying 600 muskets and ammunition, which were speedily distributed among the expectant and willing people. The neighbouring country was so thoroughly and quickly roused that by broad daylight the Beys had got together as many as 3000 Circassians. Hassan Pasha then landed an additional force, composed of other Circassians, Kurds, Lazis, and Turks; and, while the ironclads opened a vigorous cannonade upon the fortress, the Beys, with their volunteers and auxiliaries, attacked the place with desperate resolution. The Russians offered a determined but vain opposition, losing terribly. After this the insurrection is described as having spread like wildfire. The inhabitants of the surrounding districts gathered by thousands, with weapons of all sorts, to the Turkish standard. They drove the Muscovite garrison and road guards all over the district, chasing them to Gangara, which they also destroyed. When these successes were reported, Hassan Pasha landed a new supply of rifles and cartridges to equip the Circassians, and a formidable local force was organised to march upon the railway line to Tiflis, singing at the direction of Kutais. Another large band was dispatched to raise the country in the rear of the Russian

columns which are attacking Batoum. When Hadji Hussein Bey left Soukhoum Kaleh to bring this great news to Batoum, which is now six days ago, the whole country had revolted from Muscovite oppression. The insurrection had spread along the seashore and into the mountains with great rapidity, in consequence of the large supplies of arms and equipments sent by the Turks."

The Russian Army of the Caucasus is suffering from want of provisions, and its onward progress is stopped by the deep snows, which still cover all the mountain gorges. A correspondent at Erzeroum, telegraphing from that place on Monday night, reports that the Russians in great force having advanced to Karaklessa, and the Turks being in front of them at Toprakala, both armies were preparing for a pitched battle. We have further details respecting the Russian forces in European Turkey. The Grand Duke Nicholas has at his disposal six corps. Four of these constitute the Army of Operation, and the other two the Army of Odessa. Their total strength is 216,000 men, 49,200 horses, and 648 guns. Three more corps have been mobilised, and are being moved into Bessarabia to take the place of those sent forward. These corps constitute a further strength of 108,000 men, making a grand total of 324,000 men.

No confirmation has been received of the news that the Russians had crossed the Danube in force, had entered the Dobrudscha, and that an engagement was proceeding. On Tuesday the Russians erected fresh batteries at Braila, armed with heavier guns. The Turkish monitors opened fire on them, but without result. This was also the case with the return fire of the Russians. The cannonading lasted three hours.

The Egyptian contingent with the Turkish army will be raised to 18,000 men. The Khedive has received a telegram from the Sultan thanking him for his promised assistance during the war. The Egyptian troops will form a distinct corps, under the command of the Minister of War. On Wednesday the British Mediterranean fleet arrived at Port Said, the entrance to the Suez Canal.

The Russian squadron on the Pacific coast of North America has put to sea under sealed orders.

The Russian Government proposes to raise a considerable sum, the precise amount of which is not stated, by private loan from the Imperial Bank of Russia, to cover which Treasury bills paying 5 per cent interest will be issued. No subscription list will be opened, and the whole of the money is to be raised in the country. It is the intention of the Russian Government to raise the duty upon imported tobacco, which now yields about 10,000,000 roubles in the year. The tax upon home-grown tobacco is to be reduced, with a view to encouraging home cultivation.

Our Special Artists on the Danube have furnished a variety of sketches for the Illustrations published this week. The Russian military post and encampment at the Barboschi railway bridge over the Sereth, just above Galatz, with the Danube and Braila seen in the distance, is shown in one of these sketches; another represents the hurried departure of soldiers, by the railway, from the Barboschi station to reinforce the position of Braila. An escort in charge of some unfortunate Turkish prisoners, one, at least, of whom has since been shot as a spy, is the subject of a passing sketch on the road. Two of the others represent scenes at Jassy, the chief town of Moldavia, with Russian troops at the railway station there; and at Bucharest, the capital of the whole Roumanian Principality, where the populace seem to be diverted with comic placards and caricature pictures of the Muscovite and the Turk displayed on the walls in the city streets. Views on the Danube, near Braila, and of the Turkish fort of Adeh Kaleh, with the incidents of seeing the first cannon-shot fired by a Turkish gun-boat at Reni, and the arrival of the Grand Duke Nicholas at Galatz, make up our Illustrations for the present Number.

THE GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS.

The Russian forces on the Danube, as our readers know, are placed under the chief command of the Emperor's brother, the Grand Duke Nicholas, while another of his brothers, Grand Duke Michael, commands the army in Asia. The first-named Prince of the Imperial House is nearly forty-six years of age, having been born in July or August, 1831. He married, in 1856, Princess Alexandra of Oldenburg, and has two sons, Nicholas and Peter, the former about twenty years of age, the latter a boy of thirteen. The Grand Duke Nicholas is in the full vigour of life, a strongly-made, muscular, soldierly-looking man, with a melancholy Romanoff face. He is General of Engineers and Aide-de-Camp General to the Emperor, Inspector-General of the Engineer Corps, of the Imperial Guard, and of the Cavalry, Commander-in-Chief of the Military District of St. Petersburg, President of the Supreme Committee on the Organisation and Instruction of the Army, Chief of a Grenadier regiment, of the regiments of Dragoons of Astrakhan, of the Alexander Hussars, and of the first battalion of Sappers of the Caucasus, Proprietor (Colonel-in-Chief) of the Austrian Hussars, No. 2, and Chief of the 5th Regiment of Prussian Cuirassiers. His adjoint in charge of the Engineers is General Totleben. The Army of the South, which was formed in September, under the command of the Grand Duke Nicholas, with General Niepoligiski as chief of the staff, comprises four complete army corps, each with two divisions of infantry, one of cavalry, and artillery in proportion, four battalions of chasseurs, two divisions of Don Cossacks, four regiments of light Cossacks, and three battalions of sappers; making 36,000 men to each corps. But the actual number of the forces brought in Roumania does not exceed 180,000. One of our Special Artist's sketches of the war shows the arrival of the Grand Duke Nicholas at the Villa Antachi, in Galatz, on Sunday week, after visiting Reni, where he was exposed to a bombardment that afternoon from the Turkish gun-boats in the river. The Grand Duke and his suite and the open carriage in which he sat were covered with dust; and there was no pomp or parade at his arrival, but crowds of the townsfolk pressed to see him. He drove on to the camp of the Cossacks, at the Barboschi railway bridge over the Sereth, just above Galatz, and thence to Braila, a few miles higher up the Danube. He has latterly fixed his head-quarters at Ploesti, two hours' railway journey north of Bucharest, and has exchanged visits with Prince Charles of Roumania in that city.

Our Portrait of the Grand Duke Nicholas is from a photograph by Bergamasco, of St. Petersburg.

The city of Iquique, in Peru, is reported to have been destroyed by an earthquake on the 12th inst. The population of Iquique is stated at about 1000.

According to a telegram from Alexandria to the *Daily News*, Mr. Dixon's agent has obtained possession of Cleopatra's Needle, and the operations for its removal have begun.

A review of the Household troops was held on Monday under the command of Major-General Stephenson, on Wimbledon-common. The troops, infantry and cavalry, numbered between 3000 and 4000 men.

FOREIGN AND COLONIAL NEWS.

FRANCE.

The Ministry has resigned in consequence of a letter addressed to M. Jules Simon by Marshal MacMahon complaining that his action in the Chamber with regard to the repeal of the press law of 1875 was not in harmony with a resolution taken by the Cabinet. (The Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday passed the bill repealing the press law of 1875.) Marshal MacMahon also complains that the Chamber, a few days previously, adopted some clauses of the Municipal Bill, the danger of which M. Simon had himself acknowledged in the Council. In conclusion, the Marshal says that although he is not, like M. Simon, answerable to Parliament, he is responsible to France, and that an explanation is indispensable. In consequence of this letter M. Jules Simon at once resigned, and all his colleagues did the same. The President then sent for the Duc d'Audiffret-Pasquier.

A meeting of the four sections of the Left on Wednesday was attended by 290 deputies, and a resolution was unanimously adopted declaring that the Chamber will only place confidence in a Cabinet which is free in its action and resolved to govern in accordance with Republican principles, which can alone secure order and prosperity at home and peace abroad.

The *Official Journal* of Thursday, in announcing the resignation of the Cabinet and Marshal MacMahon's acceptance of it, states that the Ministers will continue at the head of their respective departments pending the appointment of their successors.

Marshal MacMahon, accompanied by several Generals, inspected the new forts round Paris on Monday.

The Senate held a short sitting on Monday, at which the first reading of the Rural Code was voted.

M. Ernest Picard, a life member of the Senate, died on Sunday. He was known as one of the famous five members who so long constituted the Opposition to the Imperial Government in the French Chamber. He was Minister of the Interior under M. Thiers after the war.

The annual dinner of the English Club in Paris, which has completed its first year, took place last Saturday.

The editor of the *Radical* has been sentenced to two months' imprisonment and a fine of 2000f. for having insulted the army. A similar sentence has been passed on the editor of the *Lanterne* for articles tending to subvert social order.

A fatal explosion occurred last Tuesday on board the French frigate *La Revanche* as the squadron was about to sail from Villafraanca. Two men were killed, and twenty others are said to have been fatally wounded.

The well-known chemist M. Caventou, the discoverer of quinine and honorary president of the Academy of Medicine, died recently in Paris, at the age of eighty-three.

The trial of Moyaux for forgery, the murder of his little daughter, and the attempted assassination of his wife, was concluded on Tuesday. The jury found him guilty on all the three counts, but, as usual with French juries, they gave the prisoner the benefit of extenuating circumstances. The Judge sentenced him to hard labour for life.

SPAIN.

A Royal decree has been published in the Madrid *Official Gazette* enjoining Spanish residents abroad to observe absolute neutrality towards Turkey and Russia.

Don Carlos has written a letter protesting against the application of the law voted by the Cortes last July, intended to abolish the privileges of the Basque and Navarrese provinces.

BELGIUM.

The annual exhibition of works of art by the Cercle Artistique et Littéraire of Brussels was opened last Saturday by the King and Queen. The exhibition comprises 275 objects, for the most part paintings.

GERMANY.

The Emperor, in a letter dated Metz, May 9, has commanded the Chief President of the Administration of Alsace-Lorraine to convey to the population of the new provinces his Majesty's thanks for the cordial reception he met with everywhere during his recent visit. "The Emperor," the letter says, "had undertaken the journey to Alsace-Lorraine in order to see the country under its altered circumstances with his own eyes, and to fulfil the grave duty imposed on him as Prince and Sovereign. His visit to the new provinces of the Empire was to him a source of pleasant reminiscences and lasting and agreeable impressions. The Emperor, on taking leave of the new provinces, carried with him the consciousness that his sojourn there would contribute to the consolidation and beneficial development of the relations between Alsace-Lorraine and the Empire."

William of Prussia, the eldest son of the Crown Prince, will attend lectures at Bonn University this summer.

The engagement is announced of Prince Kita Shira Kawa, uncle of the Emperor of Japan, and a Major in the Prussian Dragoons, to Baroness Bertha von Tettau, widow of the late Baron Tettau, and daughter of Baron Bredow Wagenitz.

SWEDEN.

A grant has been made by the Chamber for measures defending the neutrality of Sweden.

AMERICA.

President Hayes opened the Permanent Exhibition at Philadelphia on Thursday, the 10th inst., and was loudly cheered. Ex-President Grant, several members of the Cabinet, the Governor of Pennsylvania, many foreign Ministers, Consuls, Congressmen, and officers of the army and navy were present. It is estimated that 100,000 people were in the building; flags were displayed throughout the city, and all business was suspended in the afternoon.

General Grant was to leave Philadelphia for England last Thursday.

Forest fires have taken place in the States, many mills and dwelling-houses having been destroyed.

CANADA.

We learn from Ottawa that Mr. William Annand, ex-Premier of Nova Scotia, has been appointed Agent-General for the Dominion in London.

Intelligence received at New York announces that a disastrous fire has occurred at St. Stephen's, New Brunswick. Seventy buildings were burned, and forty-three families rendered homeless.

AUSTRALIA.

According to a Melbourne despatch of Saturday's date, the elections in Victoria have resulted in the return of a Protectionist majority.

The committee of the Melbourne Athenæum, in their report for last year, state that "there is every cause for satisfaction as regards the prospects of the institution, which seems to have entered upon a career of usefulness and prosperity such as its warmest well-wishers could desire."

JAPAN.

With reference to the insurrection in Japan, a telegram has been received in London which states that another army corps has reached Kagoshima. More than one battle has been fought there, and a large portion of the town has been burned. The Imperialists are reported to have been victorious.

METROPOLITAN NEWS.

Drury-lane Garden has been reopened to the public under new regulations.

A bazaar in aid of the funds of the National Hospital for the Paralyzed and the Epileptic, in Queen-square, Bloomsbury, was on Tuesday opened at the Riding School, Knightsbridge, by Princess Louise.

Mr. Colvin, the Slade Professor of Fine Art in the University of London, gave on Monday, in the rooms of the Society of Arts, the last of five "Cantor" Lectures, on the Connection of Greek and Roman Art with the Teaching of the Classics.

At the invitation of the trustees of the National Penny Bank, the Lord Mayor went in state, accompanied by the Sheriffs, from the Mansion House, on Tuesday, to lay the foundation-stone of the Shoreditch branch of the bank in Great Eastern-street.

At a meeting of the Royal Humane Society, held on Wednesday at the offices, Trafalgar-square, several cases of gallantry in saving, or attempting to save, life in various parts of the world were investigated by the committee, which conferred the society's awards.

Mr. John Birkett, of Green-street, Grosvenor-square, senior vice-president of the Royal College of Surgeons, has been unanimously elected consulting surgeon to Guy's Hospital; and Dr. Goodhart, M.D. Aberdeen, M.R.C.P. London, has also been appointed assistant physician.

The Clothworkers' Company have voted £1000 to the textile department of the Glasgow School of Science; and the Goldsmiths' Company have voted £500 towards the effort now being made to increase the endowment fund of the Clock and Watchmakers' Asylum, New Southgate.

Mr. E. J. Reed, M.P., speaking at a meeting of the Royal Colonial Institute on Tuesday evening, advocated the establishment of a naval station and dockyard in the Southern Seas, and said he believed that the colonies would take an important part in the establishment of such a station.

There was a very successful flower show at the Crystal Palace last Saturday, and the annual rose show at this place will be held next month. A new railway station, occupying the site of the old wooden shed which has done duty since the opening of the palace in 1854, was opened last Saturday.

A change in the internal management of the Consumption Hospital, Brompton, is said to be contemplated by the committee, who propose to appoint a lady superintendent, with a housekeeper, by whom the nursing and domestic arrangements will be managed, instead of by a matron, as heretofore.

A Parliamentary Return issued on Tuesday states that the balance due at the close of 1876 to depositors in the Post-Office Savings Banks, inclusive of interest, was £26,996,550 10s. 3d. The deposits during the year amounted to £3,982,350 4s. 11d., and the interest to £619,331 10s. 7d. The repayments amounted to £7,792,477 2s. 11d.

The concluding session of the Congregational Union took place in the Memorial Hall yesterday week—Mr. H. Richard, M.P., presiding at the morning meeting, and Mr. Barran, M.P., in the evening. At the former of these a petition to Parliament was adopted, setting forth various objections to the Government Burials Bill.

In presiding at the spring meeting of the National Rifle Association on Wednesday the Duke of Cambridge announced that the Wimbledon meeting will begin on July 9, the camp being ready for occupation two days previously. The programme shows few changes, the most important being the increase in value and number of the aggregate prizes.

At the meeting of the Metropolitan Board of Works yesterday week it was stated that the amount of compensation to be paid for the slaughter of cattle in London since the beginning of the year, under the cattle plague regulations, was £6457, against which a large sum had been received for the sale of what proved to be sound meat; so that the loss was only £2477.

On Tuesday afternoon the eighth meeting this year of the fruit and floral committees of the Royal Horticultural Society, together with an exhibition of fruit and flowers, was held at the society's gardens, South Kensington; and on Wednesday the first summer exhibition of the season in the Royal Botanic Society's gardens was held—the display being held by competent judges to be the finest ever held in these gardens.

Lord Shaftesbury presided on Wednesday at the annual meeting of the Working-Men's Lord's-Day Rest Association. They had, he remarked, heard much of education, but he more and more felt the need of moral education and of domestic purity; and, with their domestic life cherished and preserved, he was little apprehensive of the future. The honour, the peace, the security, the dignity of England depended upon her domestic life, and no danger could come to us as long as the people revered the Sabbath.

A meeting was held last Saturday at the Artisans' Institute, Castle-street, to take into consideration the subject of technical education—what is needed to make it practical and thoroughly efficient. The Rev. H. Solly presided, and several members of the City guilds attended to hear the opinions entertained by skilled workmen in reference thereto. A general opinion was expressed in favour of the establishment throughout the metropolis of schools for imparting technical instruction, controlled by a central college or university.

By order of the War Office, a brigade field-day of metropolitan volunteers was held last Saturday in Bushey Park, when the new system of attack, which has for some time past been practised at Aldershot and other military stations, was introduced, with much pains and attention, to the citizen troops, by Colonel Burnaby, Grenadier Guards, who had been deputed by the Horse Guards to attend, he being accompanied by Captains Ricardo and Primrose, of the same regiment, as brigade-major and aide-de-camp.

According to a report made by Dr. Frankland, all the water delivered from the Thames to the metropolis and its suburbs during April, except that supplied by the Middlesex Company, was more or less turbid, and was unfit for dietetic purposes, being much polluted with organic matter. The water supplied, principally from the Lea, by the New River and East London Companies, was very superior to that of the Thames, and was efficiently filtered. The deep-well waters supplied by the Kent and Colne Valley Companies, and by the Tottenham Local Board, were of their usual excellent quality.

The Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the origin, objects, present constitution, customs, and usages of the London Stock Exchange has been gazetted. The members of the Commission are—Lord Penzance, Baron Blackburn, the Right Hon. Spencer Horatio Walpole, the Right Hon. Edward Pleydell Bouverie, the Hon. Edward Stanhope, Sir Nathaniel Meyer de Rothschild, Mr. Henry Hicks Gibbs, Mr. Benjamin Buck Greene, Mr. John Hollams, Mr. Coleridge John Kennard, Mr. Septimus Richard Scott, and Mr. John Reginald Yorke. Mr. R. G. C. Mowbray, barrister, is appointed secretary.

The centenary of the Gaelic Society is announced to be celebrated by a dinner at St. James's Hall on June 6, with the Marquis of Huntly (chief) presiding. The Celtic choir, recently established, and so entitled by reason of its connection with the first-named society, gave its inaugural concert in the new rooms of the Academy of Music on May 29.

A public meeting for the purpose of making known the objects and work of the London Society for the Extension of University Teaching was held on Wednesday night at the Shoreditch Townhall, when resolutions were passed in support of the society. Sir Charles Reed, chairman of the School Board for London, presided; and amongst the speakers were Mr. Goschen, M.P., the Marquis of Lansdowne, Lord G. Hamilton, M.P., and Mr. T. Hughes.

It may interest shopkeepers to know that a tradesman of Bishopsgate-street has been summoned before Sir Robert W. Carden for unlawfully defacing a half-sovereign. The complainant stated that she went to the defendant's place of business to pay some money and tendered a good half-sovereign. The clerk broke it into three pieces and gave it her back, saying it was bad. She maintained that it was good, but ultimately left, when the clerk followed her home, abused her, and accused her of trying to pass counterfeit coin. Sir Robert Carden ordered the defendant to replace the half-sovereign and to pay the complainant 12s. costs.

The first meet of the Coaching Club took place in Hyde Park on Wednesday morning, when twenty-eight coaches met at the Powder Magazine. In the absence of the Duke of Beaufort, president of the club, his coach was driven by Lord Arthur Somerset, who had with him on the box-seat his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, who rarely fails to be present on these occasions; Lady Westmorland and Lady Emily Kingscote were also upon this coach. After the start the coaches drove round the park, and made their way by Hyde Park and Princes-gate to the Orleans Club at Twickenham, where it was arranged they should lunch.

An old man named George Stanley has been committed for three months as a rogue and vagabond for loitering about King William-street, Strand, with a felonious intention. The prisoner had made himself up to look like a clergyman, and it was his habit to walk about in a slow and apparently contemplative manner, with an umbrella partially open in his hand. Several women, well-known thieves, were his associates, and when they succeeded in stealing a watch, piece of jewellery, or a purse, the stolen property was quietly dropped into the umbrella as he passed. A former conviction was proved, and Mr. Flowers sentenced the prisoner to three months' hard labour.

The weekly return of metropolitan pauperism shows that the total number of paupers last week (the first week of May) was 82,161, of whom 37,786 were in workhouses and 44,375 received outdoor relief. Compared with the corresponding week in 1876, these figures show an increase of 1195, but a decrease of 7191 and 15,767 respectively compared with 1875, and 1874. In the number of indoor paupers there is an increase of 2925, 3565, and 3428 over that of the corresponding weeks in 1876, 1875, and 1874, and a decrease in the number of outdoor paupers of 1730, 10,756, and 19,195 respectively. The number of vagrants relieved at the end of the week was 606, of whom 402 were men, 180 women, and 24 children under sixteen.

Last week 2378 births and 1613 deaths were registered in London. Allowing for increase of population, the births exceeded by 11 and the deaths by 179 the average numbers in the corresponding week of the last ten years. The deaths included 78 from smallpox, 45 from measles, 24 from scarlet fever, 4 from diphtheria, 58 from whooping-cough, 16 from different forms of fever, and 20 from diarrhoea. These deaths exceeded by 15 the corrected average number from the same diseases in the corresponding week of the last ten years. The deaths referred to diseases of the respiratory organs, which had been 349 and 327 in the two previous weeks, were 355 last week, and exceeded by 109 the corrected average weekly number: 203 resulted from bronchitis, and 106 from pneumonia. Different forms of violence caused 53 deaths. Last week the mean temperature at the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, was 49 deg., or 2 deg. below the average.

Mr. John Morley, in presiding at the annual council of the National Agricultural Labourers' Union, which was opened on Tuesday, pointed out that, notwithstanding all that had been done to ameliorate the condition of the working classes, it was a deplorable fact that in many respects the labourer was worse off now than he was a hundred years ago. In the course of the day a resolution was passed recording the opinion of the council in favour of Mr. Arch becoming a candidate for a seat in the House of Commons.—Mr. Bright presided on Wednesday over a conference attended by 2200 agricultural labourers in Exeter Hall, to advocate the assimilation of the county to the borough franchise. Resolutions in favour of the objects of the conference were passed after addresses by several members of Parliament, Mr. Arch, and other leaders of the agricultural labourers. In the evening a crowded and enthusiastic meeting, presided over by Mr. Cowen, M.P., was held in St. James's Hall for a like purpose.

Captain Shaw, chief of the Metropolitan Fire Brigade, was a witness on Monday before the Select Committee which is inquiring into the best means of protecting London from fires. Instituting a comparison between London, Paris, New York, and Chicago, he showed that the cost of the brigade was less in London than in either of the other three cities. With regard to salvage, Captain Shaw said he believed that, if the police were made a salvage corps to protect uninsured property, the cost should fall upon the owners of that property. He called attention to the extreme danger of having the safety of the metropolis intrusted to too many organisations. Captain Shaw recommended that there should be telegraphic communication between the police and the brigade stations. He further recommended that there should be barriers in the passages of theatres, and that there should be a fireproof curtain in all theatres, which should be immediately let down on a fire breaking out behind the scenes.

Mr. Humphreys, Coroner for East Middlesex, held an inquest on Monday, at Dalston, on the body of Horace A. Bullock, who on Thursday evening last week shot Mr. W. T. Clements, in Highbury New Park, through the head, and afterwards committed suicide. Bullock was a clerk in an accountant's office, and had been engaged to a young lady of Highbury-quadrant, but her parents had caused the match to be broken off, and she had become engaged to Mr. Clements. Before this occurred Bullock's family had noticed that he had been in a depressed state of mind, and since his rejection symptoms of melancholia had increased. It was stated that he was a regular attendant at church and a teacher in a Sunday school. His employers gave him an excellent character, and said that his salary had been twice raised during the past year. They had noticed during the last month or two that he appeared depressed. The jury found that he committed suicide while of unsound mind.—An inquest has been held on the body of Mr. Clements with the same result.

At a meeting of the Royal Geographical Society on Monday evening—Sir Rutherford Alcock in the chair—a paper by Captain H. Trotter, R.E., was read by Mr. Markham, describing a journey made through Eastern Turkestan by the Pandit Nain Singh, to whom the council have awarded one of the medals of the year. Captain Trotter had intended to give the paper a wider scope by adding an account of a journey through Western Turkestan, but he had been called away on duty to the East, and had not been able to finish the paper. The Pandit had in his journey to contend with many difficulties, all his baggage having to be carried on sheep, which, in that pastoral country, make excellent beasts of burden. He started with twenty-six sheep from Lassa, in Thibet, and proceeded through Turkestan to the frontiers of China and Assam, visiting in the course of his journey several important lakes, and returning along the course of the Brahmapootra to Calcutta. He had made useful surveys of the country which he had traversed. The president, after the paper had been read, said there was no doubt that every part of Central Asia was becoming, both politically and commercially, of greater interest, and the steps taken to extend our commerce made these journeys of more moment. Such explorations claimed from us, as a commercial people, a feeling of deep gratitude to those who undertook such work, and he felt that it was difficult to express the gratitude due to the explorers.

BENEVOLENT SOCIETIES.

At the annual festival of the girls' schools founded by the "Ancient, Free, and Accepted Masons of England" for the daughters of the deceased and decayed brethren, held last week at the Freemasons' Hall—Lord Suffield, the Right Worshipful the Provincial Grand Master for Norfolk, presiding, subscriptions amounting to £9757 were announced, of which £5228 came from London lodges, West Yorkshire sending £840, and Middlesex £745.

Yesterday week the annual dinner in aid of the Railway Benevolent Institution took place at the Freemasons' Tavern—Lord Houghton in the chair—when £1450 was subscribed.

The dinner in aid of the benevolent fund of the Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain was held at the Freemasons' Tavern on Tuesday evening, when about £1400 was collected. This society held its annual conversazione at South Kensington Museum on the following evening, when the whole of the building and the picture-galleries were thrown open to the guests, who numbered about 2500.

The thirty-first anniversary of the Seamen's Christian Friend Society Mission was held at the institution, near Well-street, London Docks, on Tuesday, under the presidency of Colonel Brockman. The report stated that much good had been accomplished by means of missionaries, Bethels, reading-rooms, schools, and the distribution of the scriptures, books, and tracts; and also that the income had increased to £1003 19s. 1d.

The 223rd anniversary festival of the Corporation of the Sons of the Clergy was held on Wednesday in St. Paul's Cathedral, the Rev. Ernest Wilberforce being the preacher. In the evening the Lord Mayor presided at the annual dinner, when the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Bishops of London and Winchester spoke warmly of the value of the society. The collection in St. Paul's Cathedral amounted to £212; the subscriptions at the dinner in the evening were £1500; and the result of the anniversary from all causes reached £7000.

On Wednesday evening, at the Freemasons' Tavern, the Right Hon. Sir Alexander Cockburn (Lord Chief Justice of England) presided over the fiftieth anniversary dinner of the Royal Free Hospital, Gray's-inn-road. The subscriptions amounted to £1500.

Sir Henry Thompson took the chair at the annual dinner in aid of the North London or University College Hospital, which took place at Willis's Rooms on Wednesday. Subscriptions amounting to £1400 were announced.

THE POPE'S JUBILEE.

The Pope has been giving audience to pilgrims from many countries.

Early on Thursday morning, the 10th inst., the English pilgrims, numbering about 200 laymen and ninety ecclesiastics, assembled at St. Peter's, where they heard mass and received communion from the hands of Cardinal Howard. At noon they were received by the Pope, when a beautifully illuminated address, sent by the Catholics of England, was read by the Bishop of Clifton, and presented, together with one signed by the Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster and his twelve suffragans, and others from various Catholic dioceses and institutions, accompanied by an offering of £15,000 and a number of ecclesiastical vestments and church ornaments, chalices, &c., such as the Pope gives to the poor missions and dioceses, the offerings being presented by the Duke of Norfolk. The Pope, who was attended by Cardinal Howard and eleven other Cardinals, replied to the address, standing in front of the throne. His Holiness expressed his gratification at seeing around him the best and truest Catholics of a nation which had given so much liberty to the Church, and referred to the splendid gifts they had brought him as proofs of the feelings by which the pilgrims were animated. Next morning the English pilgrims visited the Basilica of St. Paul, where mass was celebrated by the Bishop of Clifton. The address sent to the Pope from England bears 466,158 signatures.

His Holiness gave audience yesterday week to the French Canadian pilgrims. They were led by the Bishop of Sherbrooke, who read an address and presented a considerable sum of money, together with a valuable chalice, given by the Canadian contingent of the Pontifical Zouaves. The pilgrims of Rhodes were received at the same time.

The Scotch pilgrims to Rome were received last Saturday. They were introduced by Bishop Strain, Vicar Apostolic of Edinburgh. Mr. Monteith of Carstairs, on behalf of the pilgrims, presented £2000, with a number of ecclesiastical vestments, chalices, and other articles of church furniture.

The Marchioness of Lothian died at Rome on Sunday afternoon, after three days' illness, from an attack of pleurisy, caught by being exposed to the draught of an open window at one of the receptions given by her to the English pilgrims on the previous Thursday. As she was unable, therefore, to go to the Vatican, the Pope sent her a special benediction. Her funeral took place on Tuesday afternoon in the Campo Varano. The burial service was celebrated in the Church of St. Lorenzo by Monsignor Clifford. Cardinal Howard and many English people were present.

The Pope on Tuesday morning received the Dutch pilgrims, who were led by the Archbishop of Utrecht. After his Holiness had replied to the two addresses presented, a large sum of money from the various dioceses of Holland was offered, together with other sums from individual members of the pilgrimage.

Cardinal Cardoso, the Patriarch of Lisbon, has left for Rome with a number of Portuguese pilgrims, to attend the Pope's jubilee. About 400 pilgrims from Portugal are expected to visit Rome on that occasion. The total amount of their offerings in money to his Holiness reaches £8000.



THE WAR: THE GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS, COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE RUSSIAN ARMY ON THE DANUBE.



THE WAR: ADEHKALEH, THE FIRST TURKISH FORTRESS ON THE DANUBE.
FROM A SKETCH BY ONE OF OUR SPECIAL ARTISTS.



THE WAR: RUSSIAN TROOPS AT THE RAILWAY STATION, JASSY.
FROM A SKETCH BY ONE OF OUR SPECIAL ARTISTS.

PARLIAMENT.

LORDS.

Ministerial statements in the Lower House have made it clear up to what point the Government will remain neutral in the war in the East. Yet the minds of noble Lords continue to be perturbed by the complications of the Eastern Question, which has still occupied the principal place in their discussions. Yesterday week, after the Duke of Richmond and Gordon had endeavoured to bribe the House with the promise of adjournment for the Whitsuntide holidays on Thursday if the debate on the Burials Bill should be concluded that night, and after the Duke of St. Albans had vainly advocated the restriction of the labours of railway servants to twelve hours a day, the Earl of Derby informed Lord Stanley of Alderley that there could be no truth in the rumour that "Mr. Layard informed the Porte that England had guaranteed the integrity and independence of the Ottoman Empire only under conditions laid down by treaties stipulating for the exercise of control by the Powers." Again, on Monday, when the Earl of Carnarvon had announced the receipt of a telegram from Sir Bartle Frere giving a summary of the proclamation of Sir T. Shepstone annexing the Transvaal with the acquiescence of the people, the inevitable Eastern Question cropped up once more in the shape of a debate on the Tripartite Treaty. The Earl of Rosebery, wished to know whether the time had not arrived for England, France, and Austria to cancel the obligations they had incurred in signing this treaty. Arguing in the affirmative, the noble Earl entered into what Lord Houghton called "an elocutionary duel" with the Foreign Secretary. Lord Bury supported the Government that had raised him to the Peerage with zeal, and was confident the honour of England was safe in their hands. A few other noble Lords joined in the conversation, some branching off into comments on the general policy of the Government in the East. Lord Derby spoke with customary plainness and point. His Lordship thought there was little probability of either Austria or France calling upon England to fulfil her part of the joint engagement entered into through the medium of the Tripartite Treaty for the preservation of the integrity of the Turkish Empire. He was of opinion, however, that this was not the right moment to withdraw from the treaty; but that we should wait until the war is over to enter into a resettlement of the matter. The Duke of Argyll urged that Turkey had brought her troubles upon her own head by repeatedly refusing the reforms recommended by the Great Powers. A reference made by the noble Duke to the Protocol brought Lord Derby to his feet again with a vigorous defence of the action of the Government in the matter, and the subject dropped after a few words from Earl Granville in support of the Duke of Argyll's criticisms.

The Earl of Carnarvon on Tuesday persuaded the House to agree to a new clause in the South Africa Bill giving power to the Queen by an Order in Council to add any territory which might belong to her Majesty either to the Cape or to Natal. The Secretary for the Colonies explained that the ultimate object of the measure was federation, and promised bluebooks which would give a complete account of recent events in South Africa. The Earl of Kimberley having pleaded that the wishes of the Dutch inhabitants of the lately annexed State should be considered before any further step was taken, the report of the amendments to the bill was adopted.

The Royal Assent was given by Commission on Thursday to the following bills:—Customs and Inland Revenue (Duties on Offices and Pensions) Judicial Proceedings, Rating, Drainage, and Improvement of Lands (Ireland), Provisional Orders, Local Government Provisional Orders (Horbury, &c.), and likewise to a number of private bills. The Lords Commissioners were the Lord Chancellor, the Marquis of Hertford, and the Earl of Bradford. Their Lordships were occupied until an unusually late hour in the consideration of the Burials Bill, although the 74th clause—the one that provoked so much controversy—had been withdrawn.

COMMONS.

The Liberal party in the House of Commons, as if anxious to disavow the soft impeachment that they feared their fate too much, have at length put it to the test of a division against the supporters of the Ministerial policy on the Eastern Question. The Marquis of Hartington, who advanced sound reasons for the somewhat Fabian tactics of the Opposition chiefs, rather implied than actually asserted that it was with some degree of diffidence he brought himself to countenance even the curtailed edition of Mr. Gladstone's Resolutions. Whether or not the result of the division proved the wisdom of his counsel, it is incontestable that the whole debate on the first of those Resolutions was, generally speaking, of a high character. Mr. Courtney, to wit, on Thursday week, materially improved the position he has taken in the House by the able address in which he in plain terms advocated the coercion of Turkey; and if the hon. member for Liskeard would only divest himself of an inordinate gravity of manner which suggests some resemblance to the proverbial being who looked wiser than it was possible for any man to be, his success as a Parliamentary debater might be further increased. Mr. Forsyth, as usual, raked the Treasury Bench fore and aft from his eyrie below the gangway on the Ministerial side; but, while approving Mr. Gladstone's Resolutions, oddly enough, said he should vote with the Government. Sir Robert Peel possesses one quality which renders his speeches generally acceptable, if they do not throw much light upon the subject under discussion. That quality is aplomb. As in private life, the vigorous and emphatic assertion of an opinion, however trivial and puerile that opinion may be, is not infrequently accepted as the acme of wisdom by those with whom sound is synonymous with sense, so in the House of Commons a confident appeal to the prejudices of the majority, especially when flavoured by a spice of personality, never fails to elicit a volley of the peculiar ejaculations which pass for cheers in our legislature. The truth was exemplified by Sir Robert Peel, who (speaking from a back bench on the Ministerial side) accused Mr. Gladstone of being ungenerous, lustily defended the Government, spoke in terms of suspicion of Russia, was confident that neutrality would be maintained as long as it could be by Lord Beaconsfield, felt sure that the "pristine valour of our race" would be displayed were we to drift into war, and compared the Opposition to a herd of hungry wolves without a shepherd. "We may be hungry, and we may be wolves, but it is not likely, being wolves, that we should have a shepherd," retorted Mr. Forster, who spoke of Sir Robert's speech as "chaff," and sent it to the winds, accordingly. Dealing with this subject in a more statesman-like manner, Mr. Forster argued that the acceptance of the Resolution, approving, as it did, a despatch of Lord Derby, would rather strengthen than otherwise the hands of the Government. Though he condemned the harsh terms used in the last despatch of the Foreign Secretary to Prince Gortschakoff, and submitted his reasons for objecting to its tone, the right hon. member for Bradford was glad to hear the Home Secretary's definition of the "British Interests" we might be called upon to protect; but, alluding to England's interest

in Egypt, hoped the Ministry would practise forbearance towards Russia, seeing that Egypt, as part of the Ottoman Empire, was assisting Turkey. Mr. Forster confessed he could not agree to the third and fourth Resolutions, because he was in favour of the absolute neutrality proclaimed by her Majesty. The right hon. gentleman concluded his characteristically clear and outspoken speech with a sturdy declaration that, while all would be anxious to protect British interests, if really endangered, there would be a large majority in the nation determined not to sacrifice our money and the blood of our soldiers for any wars waged on "fancied fears and panic-stricken sentiments." It would be simply to repeat what has been said over and over again from the Treasury Bench to enumerate all the points made by the hard-worked Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, in resuming the debate yesterday week, when an inordinate number of members strove to catch the Speaker's eye. Mr. Walter had seasonably reminded these anxious speakers that brevity was the soul of wit. As the onerous task of defending Lord Derby had been thrown upon Mr. Bourke, it was not to be supposed for a moment that the latter would, if he could, act upon Mr. Walter's suggestion. The Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs insisted that the Government had done the best they could to persuade the Porte to govern its Christian subjects justly; stated that none of the European Powers, except Russia, favoured the idea of coercing Turkey, or of co-operating in a military occupation of her provinces; and, arguing that Lord Derby's despatch to Prince Gortschakoff was justified by the necessity of relieving the Government of any responsibility whatever in Russia's declaration of war, finished a speech, not without ability as far as its matter went, by reverting to the policy of Mr. Canning in support of the course pursued by the Government in advocating the non-coercion of Turkey. Sir R. Anstruther, Mr. Anderson, Mr. Newdegate, Mr. Shaw Lefevre, Sir J. Lubbock, Mr. Walter, and Mr. Goschen declared for the Resolution, against which spoke Lord Elcho (his soul in arms, and eager for the fray, as Russia would be in Adrianople by the first week in July, and at Constantinople a month later!), Mr. R. Yorke, Mr. Grantham, and Dr. Kenealy.

On Monday Mr. Waddy took up the thread of the debate, and with his usual gusto pronounced himself in favour of Mr. Gladstone's Resolutions in their entirety. Of the luminaries who succeeded him Sir William Harcourt declaimed on the same side with the vigour of a Boanerges, and demonstrated, to his own satisfaction, how the Government might have coerced Turkey; Mr. Fawcett lifted himself into his pulpit, and, in a strain of pulpit oratory, threatened to sit till Christmas rather than allow hon. members on the Ministerial benches to precipitate this country into a war; the Marquis of Hartington expressed his views, which were in favour of the Resolution, with the logical precision and directness characteristic of his speeches; and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, summing up the debate on behalf of the Government, replied much to the same effect as the Home Secretary did on the opening night, but with more reticence and with less direct antagonism to Russia. Coming to the critical question of what were the British interests that England might be called upon to defend by force, Sir Stafford Northcote did not particularise them so minutely as Mr. Cross did; but he said—

I would point out that there are interests which we have in common with other nations, and also those which we consider interests more peculiar to ourselves. As regards the former, I see no reason why we should put ourselves forward to fight alone the battle which other nations may fight if they consider it their interest; but we shall not be wanting in taking our part in conjunction with other nations if those common interests are endangered. But there are other interests which are peculiar to ourselves, and I refer especially to the road to India. It is of great importance to us that that road should be kept open and safe, and we do not intend to allow the matter to escape our vigilant attention; and we attach great importance to the points of that route to the Suez Canal and to Egypt, &c. Now, I hope I have sufficiently indicated what the present policy of the Government is. We desire to maintain a strict neutrality; to watch over the interests of England, and in the maintenance of those objects we desire to be vigilant, but we do not desire to be over-hasty. Care must be taken to keep everything in our eye, to act, but not prematurely, so as to provoke a contest by unwise or hasty conduct on our part.

Mr. Gladstone, late though the hour was (past twelve), showed himself at his best in replying on the whole case—if the expression may be permitted. The right hon. gentleman, who had been sitting between Mr. Bright and Mr. Goschen, in earnest consultation with them on a certain point of Sir Stafford Northcote's speech, which was apparently to be controverted, rose to a full House, which greeted him with the usual tribute of cheers. His speech was a model of debating power. He had shaken himself free for the moment of the circumlocution which is his bane. Absolutely master of the details of the weighty subject he had invited the House to pronounce a decision upon, Mr. Gladstone was at his best. With an eloquence which never for an instant failed him, animated and quick as lightning in repartee, ironic to perfection when he commented on the power of Conservative lungs, which it would be fruitless for him to contend against, the right hon. member for Greenwich displayed by turns almost every variety of oratorical art in this remarkable speech. It was a trenchant exposure of what he alleged to be the inconsistencies of the Government policy throughout the Eastern imbroglio; it cited numerous instances in which foreign intervention in other countries had not been followed by war, and even cited cases (notably that of Turkey herself with regard to the Damascus massacres) in which coercion had been used without being resented by force; and the address was brought to a close by a peroration delivered in subdued tones that added to its effectiveness:—

I believe that this debate has been eminently conducive, and will hereafter be more conducive, to the prevalence of the best influences which are to be found in the councils of the Cabinet. The time is running by fast—the hour-glass is fast running out—and the longer you delay the more difficult will it be to make arrangements favourable to the objects which you have in view. If Russia should fail, her failure will be disastrous to mankind, because it will leave the condition of the Christian people of Turkey, on whose behalf you have interested yourselves, worse than it was before. If Russia should succeed, that Power, notwithstanding all your jealousies, if its conduct be honourable, or even prudent, cannot fail to observe a moderation which will secure for her undying renown in consequence of the accomplishment of the work she has taken in hand. When that work is accomplished by her, and not in the way I at least should have wished to see it accomplished—as an Englishman I may hide my head, but as a man I must rejoice. Never to the end of my life can I do otherwise than exclaim, "Would to God that the voice of the nation had been permitted in this great crisis to prevail—would to God that in so holy a work England had not been refused her share!"

The House was moved to loud laughter by Major O'Gorman's quaint explanation of the composition of the Bashi-Bazouks, and then divided, with the following result:—

For Mr. Gladstone's First Resolution	223
Against	354
Majority	131

We gave the whole of Mr. Gladstone's Resolutions in our last Number. The first (negated by the above vote) was:—"That this House finds just cause of dissatisfaction and complaint in the conduct of the Ottoman Porte with regard to the dispatch written by the Earl of Derby on Sept. 21, 1876, and relating to the massacres in Bulgaria." Sir Henry Drummond Wolff's amendment (which was agreed to without a division) was couched in terms suggested by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and ran thus:—"That this House declines to entertain any resolution which may embarrass her Majesty's

Government in the maintenance of peace and the protection of British interests without indicating any alternative line of policy."

As if the Eastern Question had not been exhaustively and exhaustingly discussed in last week's debate, Mr. E. Jenkins and other hon. members (who seem to sleep with one eye open for any Ministerial oversight with regard to Turkey) have returned to the charge with questions as to whether the Government are aware of this or know that. Proceeding at last to business, the House on Tuesday passed clauses 17 to 22 on the Oxford and Cambridge Universities Bill, with one or two amendments; and on Wednesday rejected Captain Pim's County Training-School Ships, by 83 to 17; threw out the gallant Captain's Mercantile Marine Hospital Bill, by 212 to 11; and negatived Sir C. O'Loughlin's bill for enabling Irish poor law guardians to be elected by ballot by 174 to 169 votes.

The proceedings on Thursday were inaugurated by the first appearance on the floor of the House of the newly-appointed Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod, General Knollys. Although betraying a little nervousness under the ponderous "greatness thrust upon him," it is but due to the gallant gentleman to say that in summoning the Speaker and the members generally to the House of Lords to hear the Royal Assent given to certain bills he executed his responsible and peculiarly solemn function in a dignified and becoming manner. The inquisitorial period of the evening commenced with something like "a scene," which at one moment assumed rather a threatening aspect. Mr. M. Henry, having placed on the notice paper an inquiry having three branches respecting the late Arctic Expedition, intimated his intention to withdraw the first. He then proceeded to put the second—namely, "Whether the Report of the Committee published in the *Times* of the 16th inst. is the original Report, or whether it has been in any respect modified or mitigated in consequence of a pressure from the Admiralty or from any other official quarter?" Mr. Ward Hunt, waxing wroth at this interrogatory, indignantly observed that as the hon. gentleman had thought proper to withdraw his first question he could withdraw the second, because he regarded it as conveying an insult both to the Committee and the Board of Admiralty, and he therefore declined to make any reply to it. Mr. Henry protested that he had never intended any offence, and denied that his words conveyed such. Amid the temporary excitement caused by this unexpected episode, Mr. Butt moved the adjournment of the House, for the purpose of having the opportunity of protesting against the groundless assumption of the right hon. gentleman that the language of the inquiry was insulting, and insisting upon the right of the member for Galway to obtain the information for which he sought. Mr. W. Hunt, reiterating his observation, the wordy tempest increased considerably in violence. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, however, interposing, by his genial influence at once dispelled the angry element and produced an admirable calm in the temperature of the House. Dr. Lyon Playfair taking up the inquiry that had occasioned such irritation in the mind of the First Lord of the Admiralty, put the question shorn of its supposed offensive insinuation. Mr. Ward Hunt, then resuming his wonted equanimity of temper and frankness of manner, replied that the report laid on the table of the House was the only one he had seen or heard of. There was no intimation from the Admiralty to the Committee except thanks for the pains they had taken. Mr. Butt withdrew the motion for adjournment, and the subject dropped. Numerous questions on a variety of subjects having been asked and answered, the motion of the Chancellor of the Exchequer to adjourn from to-night until the 31st inst. was agreed to, and the House went into Committee on the Universities Bill.

The Queen has been pleased to approve the selection of Suva, on the south coast of the island of Viti Levu, to be the future capital of Fiji.

The *York Herald* hears that an experiment is shortly to be made in introducing "Chinese domestic labour" into England. Shiploads of Chinese labourers are about to be imported by a London firm of shippers, and a Chinese laundry is being erected in Holland Park.

Saunders's News Letter, one of the oldest of Irish newspapers, has ceased to exist. Its last number (42,250) was printed on Friday, May 11. It was established in 1688 as the *Dublin News Letter*, and changed its name in 1755 to the title by which it has since been known. It was bought in the Irish Bankruptcy Court on Tuesday by Mr. T. W. Burnside, for £600.

Two handsome, clearly-printed editions of the Bible, in strong binding, for the use chiefly of teachers and students—one being in crown 8vo and the other in demy 16mo—have recently been issued from the Oxford University Press Warehouse, Paternoster-row. A large amount of condensed information is appended, consisting of notes analytical, chronological, historical, and geographical, a Biblical index, Cruden's Concordance, a dictionary of Scripture names, and maps.

Mr. Gray, Home Ruler, was elected for the county of Tipperary, on Monday, by a large majority over Mr. Casey, a Nationalist; the numbers being—Gray, 3852; Casey, 1344. Next day the Hon. F. Hanbury-Tracy, the Liberal candidate for the Montgomeryshire Boroughs, was elected by a majority of 329 over Lord Castlereagh, who had come forward in the Conservative interest; the numbers polled being—Hanbury-Tracy, 1447; Castlereagh, 1118.

The inquiry into the colliery explosion at Tyldesley, which has lasted three days, was concluded on Wednesday. The jury returned the following verdict:—"That the deceased's death was caused by the effect of a blown-out shot improperly planted. They are also of opinion that reasonable precautions had been taken by the owners and managers of the pit to insure the safe working of the pit. They recommend that wooden doors should be used, where practicable, by the shot-lighter, and that the coal should be properly cut and holed."

Sir Charles Reed, in presiding last Monday over the first public meeting of a society which has for its object the provision of Christian homes for the deaf and dumb children of tender years who are being educated in board schools, directed attention to the merciful nature of its work, which was especially one for the Christian ladies of England.—Lord Aberdeen presided on Tuesday over the annual meeting of the Home Teaching Society for the Blind, which was held at Willis's Rooms. The report recorded the fact that fifty-six associations had been formed throughout the United Kingdom, and that the work of teaching the poor to read through the agency of Moon's type was making satisfactory progress.—A concert in aid of the funds of the Royal Normal College at Upper Norwood was given on Tuesday, by permission of the Earl and Countess of Dudley, at Dudley House, which was largely attended by those interested in the welfare of the blind. Many of the pupils of the college sang both part-songs and solos with considerable truth and refinement, and a few joined with some professional players in the performance of a selection of instrumental music in a style which evinced careful training and a good amount of artistic taste.

NOVELS.

Many readers will recognise a chip of the old block and an undeniable transmission of paternal genius in *Garth*, by Julian Hawthorne (Richard Bentley and Son), a novel, in three volumes, in each and all of which there are conspicuous evidences of the imaginative faculty, seconded by great power of expression and great vigour of execution. Both characters and scenes, moreover, are remarkable for novelty of handling as well as of conception; and that refreshing element is improved in flavour by a judiciously moderate intermixture of quaint American phraseology. It may be that in that sustained interest with which a reader is sometimes skilfully led on to follow with breathless anxiety the career of a hero or heroine, or of both, from start to finish, the story will be considered to be a little deficient; but, if the tale be regarded as a drama divided into various acts and scenes, each act and scene, tortuous and attenuated as the thread of connection may be, and wearying rather than stimulating as the constant shiftings of the apparently inevitable catastrophe may be found, cannot fail to produce their individual effect and leave upon the reader a deep impression. The author has exhibited extraordinary force and fire; and yet he has depicted his bland villain with as happy a touch as that with which he sketches the personages whose every deed is done under the influence of the more violent passions. And he is as picturesque as he is forcible; he knows well how to manage contrasts, as will be acknowledged by anybody who observes the skill with which he places the ingenuous small boy with the red tippet among the actors and actresses in the tragic skating-scene towards the conclusion of the third volume. *Garth*, the hero, a Puritan and the son of a Puritan, or of one who would and should have been a Puritan if he had not been a philosopher, is in many respects a noble conception nobly worked out; and he is, apparently, intended to illustrate, after a fashion, certain phases of heredity, tempered by training. Madge Danver, who may claim to be considered the heroine, is an indescribable being. Flesh and blood, indeed, she is; and, perhaps, rather too much of both; but she is more fantastic and capricious than the winds that blow wheresoever they list. She is beautiful as a dream, and as deceptive withal. She likes to be wooed, but she prefers to be wooed fiercely and by a man of physical powers and physical courage beyond the ordinary race of men; and, if he should have a screw loose in his character and be naturally prone to crime, the more chance, as it seems, he would have of winning her love. A Bash-Bazouk of a superior stamp (if there be any superior stamp of that human article) is the sort of husband one would be inclined to select for her. Still, it was not only natural, but, for the purposes of the story, unavoidable, that the heroic *Garth* should fall a victim to her charms and her vagaries. What is the issue of their loves and their quarrels and their renewals of love shall not be here divulged, for fear of discounting the pleasure which cannot fail to be derived from a perusal of the narrative. The author's name might create apprehensions of something more mystic and transcendental than readers in general can comfortably digest; but all apprehensions on that score may be scattered to the winds. There is only just enough of the mysterious, the fanciful, and the speculative to invest the persons and the incidents with a certain rarity and elevation; they are within the comprehension and appreciation of the most practical natures. The colouring is vivid; and some very striking effects are produced by the manner in which the author, working, for the most part, on Transatlantic soil, has grouped the native Indian and the half-breed among the pure whites of his romance. That the conclusion should wear an appearance of comparative tameness and bear some resemblance to an anticlimax will occasion no surprise; for it would have been almost impossible to carry out to the bitter end the awful catastrophe from time to time, apparently, foreshadowed, and yet to escape the charge, which was once so common, but which is now, happily, less frequently urged, of sacrificing the reader's better feelings at the shrine of the sensational Moloch.

So much interest is taken by an average country town in its reigning beauty, that Mrs. Eiloart makes certain of arresting the attention of her readers when she opens her latest novel with these words: "Pauline Lynton was the very prettiest girl in Waterhurst." Thus attractively introduced in the first chapter of *His Second Wife* (S. Tinsley), this "pale brunette, with deep-red lips and eyes whose bright darkness was something wonderful," is the daughter of a doctor having a comfortable practice and a good position in Waterhurst, until a grateful patient leaves him a legacy, which is successfully disputed by the relatives of the deceased. Not many pages, however, are devoted to poor Dr. Lynton and his fate. Pauline is the centre of interest. She has three admirers at her feet at the same time, but is true to one, Hartley Bertram, to the last. Even when estranged by the readiness with which she, in the buoyancy of her heart, dances with a dashing young guardsman, he withdraws from his engagement and marries for money, Pauline still loves him; and it is she who eventually proves "His Second Wife." The various phases of the plot ought not, however, to be divulged. Mrs. Eiloart's new novel is to be commended for the same features which won favour for "Jacob Ebsleigh, M.P." and the earlier fictions of this popular writer. The characters to be met with in the professional circles of a provincial town are portrayed to the life. Loose-jointed sentences now and then cause the reader to stumble; and ere and there, possibly, objection might be taken to the freedom with which a spade is called a spade. But there is undeniable merit in the fidelity with which a great variety of familiar types are limned, and the petty conventionalities of a certain grade of provincial society described in the course of the three volumes which relate how with "the very prettiest girl in Waterhurst" the course of true love ran by no means smoothly.

Last Saturday the members of the Royal Yacht Squadron dined together at the Pall Mall, Regent-street—Commodore the Earl of Wilton presiding.

The parish church of Overton, Wiltshire, which is in a dilapidated state, is about to be rebuilt and enlarged, at a cost of between three and four thousand pounds. The trustees of Sir H. Meux, Bart., have contributed handsomely.

At an early hour last Saturday morning Gordon House, Isleworth, the residence of Lord Kilmorey, situated on the banks of the Thames, was entered by thieves, and silver plate valued at between £300 and £400 carried off.

At the weekly meeting of the London School Board on Wednesday it was resolved to borrow a further sum not exceeding £90,000, making up to the present time £2,491,580 to be borrowed in all from the Public Works Loan Commissioners. The superintendents of visitors were authorised to recommend the remission of fees in certain cases, and thereby retain the children in school until the matter shall have been brought before the divisional committees. The works committee were instructed to secure a building for a truant school, capable of accommodating fifty boys. The board adjourned till June 6.

The Extra Supplement.

"THE PHYSICIAN."

The visitation of healing mercy and beneficent skill, in a village of those countries in south-eastern Europe, where pestilence and famine are too likely to follow in the train of war, is a subject worthy of the artist's serious conception. Mr. Wallis has treated a similar theme, in the picture we have selected from the Royal Academy Exhibition for one of our Engravings, so forcibly, and with so much truth of feeling, as to convey a high moral lesson of the beauty of charity, in the gracious and winning performance of its holy behests. The attentive docility and expectancy of the waiting crowd, amongst whom are several patients, or fathers and mothers of younger patients, about to seek the aid of the foreign physician, is well expressed by their various attitudes, and by the countenances with which they regard him. As he stands by the open window, ministering some potion of medicinal virtue to a sick woman of the household within, his noble figure is set off to much advantage by the flowing robe and head-dress of an Oriental costume. The maiden who attends his steps, bearing a little store of the drugs he is accustomed to use, may be supposed to be the physician's daughter; and her employment in this sacred service does not fail to enhance the particular interest of the scene.

MUSIC.

ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA.

The operatic event of this week has been the return of Madame Adelina Patti, which took place on Tuesday, as Dinorah, in Meyerbeer's opera so entitled. The great artist met with the usual enthusiastic reception, and sang with all her accustomed charm and brilliancy. Among other special effects was, as heretofore, the delivery of the bravura "Shadow song," which received the accustomed encore. The cast of the opera was otherwise also as before, having included Madame Scalchi as the principal Goatherd, Signor Marini as Corentino, Signor Graziani as Hoel, &c.

On Monday "Un Ballo in Maschera" was repeated; and on Wednesday "Lohengrin" was given, for the first time this season, and with a repetition of that exquisite impersonation of Elsa by Mdlle. Albani which was so memorable a feature in the first production of the opera here, in 1875, and in after performances. The representative of Lohengrin was Signor Carpi, who had previously filled the character, this having been his first appearance this season. The other principal characters were also cast as before:—Ortruda, Mdlle. d'Angeri; Telramondo, Signor Cotogni; the Herald, Signor Capponi; the King, Signor Sclara, &c.

On the previous Saturday "Rigoletto" was given for the first time this season, and with a repetition of that charming impersonation of Gilda by Mdlle. Albani which has heretofore been a feature in the cast of the opera at this house. As the jester, Rigoletto, Signor Pandolfini made his first appearance here, and met with considerable success. He possesses a baritone voice of good quality, sings artistically, and acts well. Signor Gayarré, who was the Duke, was encored in his canzone, "La donna è mobile."

For Thursday "Les Huguenots" was announced; for yesterday (Friday), "Don Giovanni" with Madame Patti as Zerlina; and for this (Saturday) evening, "Lucia di Lammermoor," with Mdlle. Albani as Lucia.

HER MAJESTY'S THEATRE.

The second appearance this season of Madame Christine Nilsson—announced for the 10th inst.—was postponed to Thursday last, in consequence of indisposition; and Mdlle. Alwina Valleria proved her ready efficiency by suddenly replacing the great singer in the character of Lucia.

Last Saturday "Il Trovatore" was given, with the resumption by Mdlle. Titiens and Signor Fancelli of their respective characters of Leonora and Manrico—the result having been a vast improvement on the performance of the opera recently commented on, when first appearances were made in those parts by singers hitherto unheard of here.

Four performances were announced for this week—a repetition of "Un Ballo in Maschera" on Monday, "La Figlia del Reggimento" on Tuesday, with Mdlle. Mila Rodani as Maria; "La Traviata" for Thursday, cast as recently noticed; and "Lucrezia Borgia" this (Saturday) evening, with the return of Madame Trebelli-Bettini as Maffio Orsini, and of M. Faure as Alfonso, the first appearance in England of Signor Carrion being promised as Gennaro.

THE WAGNER FESTIVAL.

The third of the performances at the Royal Albert Hall—on Saturday afternoon—as already mentioned, consisted of selections from "Tannhäuser" and "Die Walküre." The extracts from the former work, however, were suddenly changed, "by special desire," and consisted of the overture, Wolfram's first song at the contest of singers, his song to the evening star, the introduction and entrance of Elisabeth, the great duet between that character and Tannhäuser, the solo of the Landgrave Hermann, and the reception of the guests at Wartburg, including the well-known march. In this part of the concert, the solo music of Elisabeth, that of Tannhäuser, and of Wolfram, was very finely sung, respectively, by Madame Materna, Herr Unger, and Herr Carl Hill; the few incidental passages for the Landgrave having been well declaimed by Herr Chandon.

The selection from "Die Walküre" began with "The Ride of the Valküres" (for orchestra), which was followed by the scene between Brünhilde and Siegmund, from the second act; and the closing scene of act iii., including the incident of the magic fire. Here the vocalists were Madame Materna (Brünhilde), Herr Unger (Siegmund), and Herr Carl Hill (Wotan).

The programme of Monday evening's concert, like that of Saturday afternoon, was suddenly changed "by special desire." It included the "Huldigung's Marsch" and the scene from "Götterdämmerung" between Brünhilde and Siegfried, where the latter character departs from the home of the Valküres, instead of some of the promised selections from "Siegfried." Madame Materna was the Brünhilde and Herr Unger the Siegfried, the latter singer having laboured under the disadvantage of an attack of hoarseness. The "Valkyrie Ride" was repeated (from Saturday's programme) and encored, the first part of the concert having comprised a selection from "Lohengrin." In these the solo vocalists were Madame Materna (Ortrud), Mdlle. Sadler-Grün (Elsa), and Herr Carl Hill (Telramund).

The first portion of Wednesday evening's programme was devoted to a selection from "Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg," the opera which followed "Tristan und Isolde," and immediately preceded "Das Rheingold." The selections from "Die Meistersinger" were the overture, the introduction to the third act (encored), the quintet, the "Preislied," and other pieces. From "Götterdämmerung" the extracts com-

prised the orchestral introduction to the third act, the fine scene of Siegfried's death and funeral procession, and the closing music in that of Brünhilde's sacrifice. Madame Materna was the principal singer, Mdlle. Grün and Herren Chandon and Schlosser having co-operated. Herr Unger and Herr Carl Hill were unable to appear in consequence of indisposition, and Mr. B. Lane rendered some serviceable assistance in the emergency. As before, Herr Wagner and Herr Richter divided the duties of conductor.

The closing performances of the festival will take place this (Saturday) afternoon.

Two young lady instrumentalists made successful first appearances at the third of this year's New Philharmonic Concerts, at St. James's Hall, on Saturday afternoon. Mdlle. Pommereuil was very favourably received in her performance of Max Bruch's concerto for violin, as was Mdlle. Cognetti in her spirited execution of Weber's "Concertstück" for pianoforte—each with orchestral accompaniments. The other items of the programme call for no special mention.

The sixth concert of the Philharmonic Society's present season took place, at St. James's Hall, on Monday afternoon, when the selection included Mozart's concerto for harp and flute (with orchestral accompaniments). The solo performers were Mr. John Thomas and Mr. Oluf Svendsen, and their execution of their respective portions of the work was of a very high order of excellence. Signor Papini played with great effect a sonata for violin by Rust, accompanied on the pianoforte by Mr. Cusins, the conductor of the concerts. The orchestral pieces were Beethoven's fourth symphony (in B flat), Brahms's variation on a theme by Haydn, and Mendelssohn's "Isles of Fingal" overture. Vocal solos were contributed by Mdlle. Redeker and Miss Robertson.

The last but two of Herr Rubinstein's pianoforte recitals was given at St. James's Hall on Wednesday afternoon, with an interesting and varied programme.

Mr. Charles Hallé's third recital took place at St. James's Hall yesterday, when his programme included Brahms's pianoforte trio, op. 8; that by Beethoven in C minor from his op. 1; Chopin's solo sonata in B flat minor; and other pieces.

Whit Monday's proceedings, both at the Crystal Palace and the Alexandra Palace, will include music. At the former place a great military and vocal concert is to be given; at the latter, a selection of patriotic music.

The engagements of the solo singers for this year's Handel Festival at the Crystal Palace have been completed, and the list comprises the following names:—Madame Adelina Patti and Mdlle. Albani, Miss Edith Wynne and Madame Lemmens-Sherrington, Madame Patey, Mr. Vernon Rigby, Mr. W. H. Cummings, and Edward Lloyd, Signor Foli, Herr Henschel, and Mr. Santley. Madame Patti has not sung at the Handel Festival since 1865; and Mdlle. Albani, Miss Edith Wynne, and Herr Henschel will appear for the first time at this great triennial musical gathering. Mr. W. T. Best will be solo organist, Mr. Willing organist, and Sir Michael Costa will conduct, as heretofore.

The concert given last week by Mr. J. B. Welch—the well-known professor of singing—included the special feature of having brought forward, for the first time in public in London, Schumann's "Requiem." The work belongs to the composer's later period, being classed as op. 148, and contains much that is specially characteristic of his individuality of style. It was rendered with a powerful chorus of about 200 voices, directed by the concert-giver; the solo singers having been Miss Anna Williams, Mrs. Bradshawe McKay, Mr. D. Strong, and Mr. E. Wharton. Another specialty, although no novelty, was Mendelssohn's hymn, op. 96, for contralto, solo, and chorus, in which Miss Bolinbroke was the soloist. There were many other points of interest in the concert, among them having been the refined pianoforte playing of Mr. Franklin Taylor in Handel's variations on "The Harmonious Blacksmith," and Mendelssohn's caprice in E minor (from op. 16); and Mr. Santley's fine singing in Mr. Arthur Sullivan's song "Thou'rt passing hence" (accompanied by the composer), and Gounod's "Nazareth"—both having been encored.

Mr. Richard Blagrove's sixth concertina concert of the season was held last Thursday in the new concert-room, Royal Academy of Music.

Four opera and promenade concerts are to begin to-night (Saturday) at the Royal Aquarium, the names of several eminent artists of Her Majesty's Theatre being announced as solo vocalists.

A series of promenade concerts is also to open this (Saturday) evening at the Queen's Theatre, under the direction of M. Rivière, who is to be the conductor, assisted by Mr. Alfred Collier.

THEATRES.

The comedy of "Mammon," adapted from the French by Mr. Sidney Grundy, was on Saturday placed on the stage of the Strand for a permanence, and was again received with approbation. The part of Sir Geoffrey Herriott is sustained by Mr. W. H. Vernon, that of Mark Chinnery by Mr. H. Cox, that of George Sorrel by Mr. J. G. Grahame, and that of Parker by Mr. Chamberlaine; Lady Herriott was well acted by Miss Ada Swanborough, Mrs. Chinnery by Miss Fanny Hughes, and Violet by Miss Maud Taylor. "Toodles" and "The Trial by Jury," assisted by Mr. J. S. Clarke's comic talents, concluded the entertainment.

Mr. Creswick is giving a series of farewell performances at the Surrey, previous to his departure for Australia. He appeared in Hamlet last Saturday, and on Tuesday in Petruchio, and was admirably received.

At the Opéra Comique, Mr. Charles Mathews appeared on Monday in the clever play of "Used Up." The farce of "A Cosy Couple" was likewise performed.

An amateur dramatic entertainment was given on Tuesday at the Royal Aquarium Theatre, by members of the St. Martin's and Covent Garden Division of the Queen's (Westminster) Rifle Volunteers.

The Lyceum reopens to-night with "The Courier of Lyons," Mr. Henry Irving performing the dual character of Lesurquet and Dubosc.

The new comedy "Mammon" was played on Thursday afternoon at the Alexandra Palace by Miss Ada Swanborough and the members of the Strand Theatre Company. On Saturday (to-day) the same company perform "A Lesson in Love" previous to the concert.

Mr. Hollingshead announces the advent of the French Plays, which are to begin their season on Monday next, at the Gaiety Theatre, with "L'Ami Fritz."

An amateur theatrical performance, under the patronage of Princess Christian, will be given by the Philothesian Club, at St. George's Hall, on the 31st inst., in aid of the Home for Incurable Children, 33, Maida-vale.



PERFORMING BEAR IN A RUSSIAN VILLAGE.



THE WAR: A WALLACHIAN VILLAGE.
FROM A SKETCH BY ONE OF OUR SPECIAL ARTISTS.



THE WAR: ON THE DANUBE, NEAR BRAILA.
FROM A SKETCH BY ONE OF OUR SPECIAL ARTISTS.

THE LOWER DANUBE.

Our Illustrations of the scenery of the Danube near Braila or Ibraila, and of a Wallachian village in the neighbourhood, with the assistance of our Map, will give some idea of the region where Turkish and Russian soldiery now confront each other, in fierce hostility, on the opposite banks of a great river. The Danube is, obviously and notoriously, Turkey's first line of defence against the Russian attack; and its geography and topography should be carefully studied from a strategical point of view. Our present observations must be confined to the lower part of its course, where it approaches the Black Sea. The portion of its Delta lying on the right bank of the river, and partly inclosed by a great northward bend of the Danube, with the Black Sea coast on its eastern side, is called the Dobrudscha. It was supposed, till within a few days, that the Russian intention was to effect the crossing into the Dobrudscha, and to do this at several points, as must be desirable with a large army. Hirsova, Braila, Galatz, Reni, and Ismail are points which offer facilities for this, of which the Russians have availed themselves before. The defence of a river line some 500 English miles long is in no circumstances an easy task. Of this line the Dobrudscha forms about one third, and this part of the line is on the extreme right, connected only with the rest by the narrow neck of land over which the railway runs from Tchernavoda to Kustendji. It was, therefore, omitted from the original plan of campaign formed by the Turks, and little or no effort was made for the defence of that part of the Danube line. The few troops stationed there were to fall back, merely committing it to the care of the Monitors from the river.

South of Hirsova the mountains of the Dobrudscha lie close to the Danube, and are difficult to cross, while all approach to the left bank of the river is prevented by the swampy island of the Balta, in some places ten miles broad. On the heights is the third of Trajan's walls,



THE LATE V. W. BROMLEY, ARTIST.

parallel with the railway from the river to the Black Sea. Still further south, the middle of the Dobrudscha forms a hollow between the above-mentioned heights and the spurs of the Balkan, and where this hollow approaches the Danube lies the famous old fortress of Silistria, opposite the Roumanian town of Kalarasch, which lies about six miles distant from the river.

The position of Giurgevo, opposite Rustchuk, sixty or seventy miles above Silistria, is of much greater present importance. Rustchuk, the capital of the Danube provinces, is a Turkish creation, and till its obstinate defence against the Russians, under Count Nicholas Kamenski (1810), had played no part worth mentioning. In 1812 Kutusoff destroyed the fortifications; in 1828 and 1829 the town was not molested, but in 1853 the battles for the island of Moka took place. The fortress stands on the plateau, which rises abruptly fifty to a hundred feet high from the river at twenty to eighty paces from it. Inclosed by a wall, and in some places by moats, it appears hardly capable of any great resistance; but it is rendered unapproachable in the west by the Balta (lake) Mairu, on the Roumanian bank of the Danube, which runs here from south-west to north-east, and also by the river itself and its tributary, the Lom (not to be confounded with the river of that name in West Bulgaria). It can, therefore, only be attacked from the north-east and south, and there well-armed fortifications are in course of construction, pledges of an obstinate resistance hereafter. A strong citadel serves to protect Rustchuk; it commands the whole town, the Danube with its islands, and even the low-lying portions of Giurgevo, on the Roumanian shore.

Giurgevo, connected by a railway and highway with Bucharest, is twenty-two miles distant from the Roumanian capital, and numbers about 20,000 inhabitants. In 1416 it was conquered by Mohammed I., and belonged till 1829 to Turkey. Till then it was the fortified *tête de pont* of Rustchuk, but in 1829 the fortifications were razed to the ground by the Russians.

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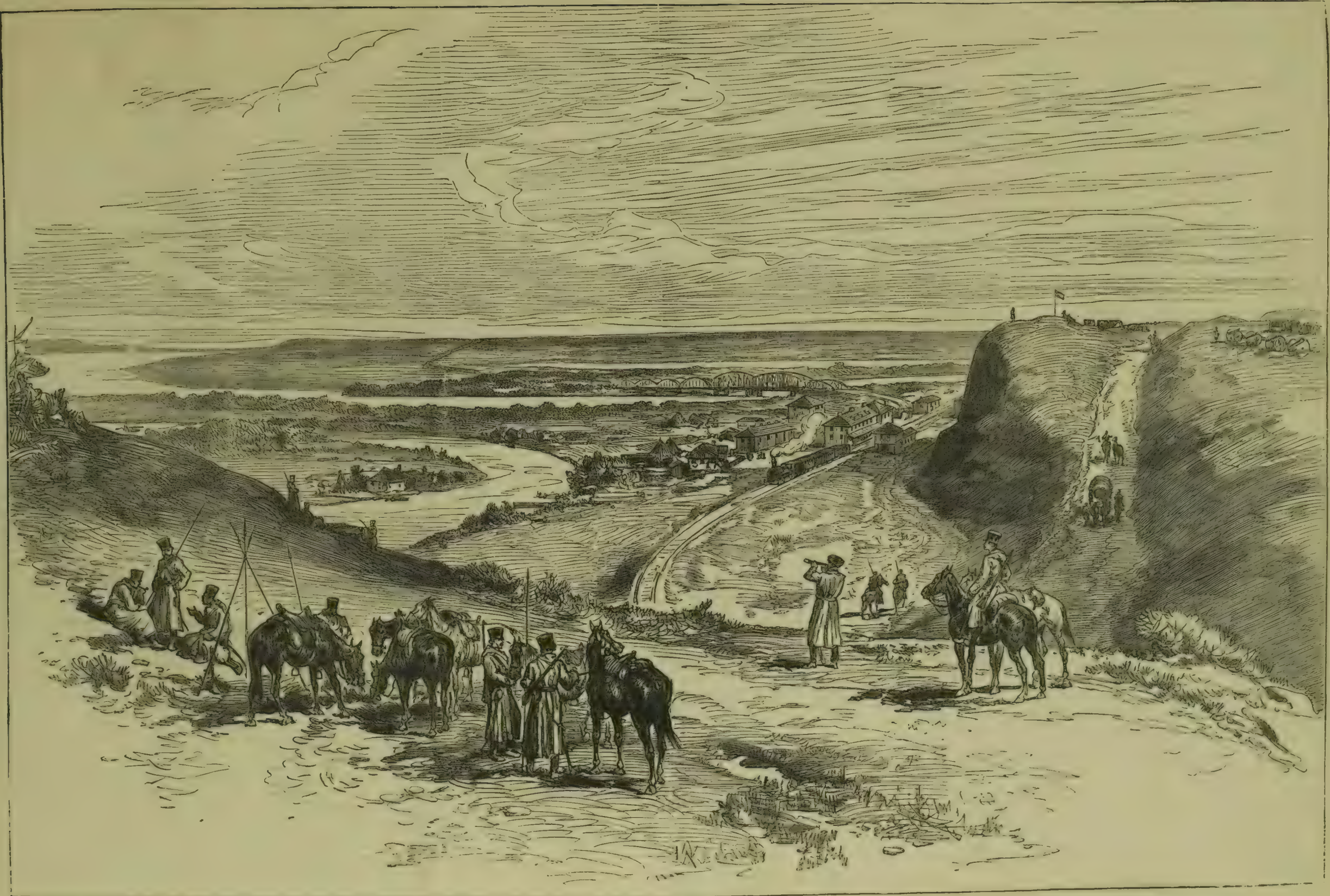
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[THIRD NOTICE.]

The versatile and prolific pencil of Mr. P. H. Calderon, R.A., has not often been seen to greater advantage than in the picture illustrative of Tennyson's beautiful verses beginning "Home they brought her warrior dead" (215). Invention has not to any great extent been called upon, so far as the painter is concerned, for the arrangement of the drama here presented on canvas; since the poet has, with the graphic force and the felicity of expression so characteristic of his genius, set out the whole *mise-en-scène*. The warrior-knight has ridden forth from his donjon keep to the fray; and he has been killed. His faithful henchmen have brought his body home, and it has been laid, clad in the steel panoply in which he fell, on the state bed. His bereaved wife, who at first neither swooned nor uttered a cry, has had her child brought to her by "the nurse of ninety years;" and, clasping her darling to her breast, she has found relief in weeping. The story is in the highest degree picturesque, pathetic, and romantic. It is scarcely realistic. Realism—which in this case might be accused of hypercriticism—would point out that, the warrior being dead, his armour would be removed from his limbs; and that again, after a deadly fight, his steel encasement would not present the smooth and polished appearance given to it by Mr. Calderon. For the rest, the work is full of ability. The drawing is very good, the colour rich and harmonious, and the execution bold but careful. As an effort of historic *genre* of an undefined period we willingly concede to it a high place; and in a kindred style, but with a story pertaining to a fixed and ascertained time, we find an equally important and interesting production by Mr. A. Elmore, R.A., "Mary Queen of Scots and Darnley at Jedburgh" (282). This represents what was virtually the last interview between Mary and her infatuated husband, and the last effort made by the Queen to win back the love and confidence of one of the most selfish and the most irresolute of mankind. The earnest, pleading, soul-full, all-womanly expression in Mary's face and attitude has been rendered by Mr. Elmore with equal genius and executive skill. He seems to have pondered deeply over those mournful lines inscribed in the unhappy Queen's own hand in the missal yet preserved in the Imperial Library at St. Petersburg. "Ce livre est un moy, Marie Reyne, 1553," is written on the flyleaf; and further on comes this dolorous quatrain—

Un cœur que l'outrage martire
Par un mépris ou d'un refus
A le pouvoir de faire dire
Je ne suis pas ce que je fus.

Read between the lines, there is in these verses a terribly significant foreshadowing of the tragedy of the Kirk of Field. Mr. Elmore's picture, likewise, is eminently and eloquently suggestive of the heart martyred by outrage, and of the spurned woman who soon will be "no longer that which she has been."

Although Mr. E. M. Ward, R.A., has done very well indeed in "William III. at Windsor" (197), in which the Protestant hero is shown patting on the head the chubby little son of one Mistress Elizabeth Edwards, to whom his Majesty has granted permission to open a milliner's shop in the gateway of the lower ward, the picture as a drama cannot be acquitted of triviality in incident; but it has, nevertheless, afforded Mr. Ward an opportunity, of which he has made the most, of painting a very lifelike similitude of one of the most patriotic and the most unpopular kings that ever sat on the English throne, and of giving us a graphic notion of the appearance of the Castle Yard, Windsor, at the close of the seventeenth century. Among Mr. Ward's numerous productions (he has five in the Academy) we prefer, however, "The Last Interview between Napoleon I. and Queen Louisa of Prussia, at Tilsit, 1808" (408). The historical epoch illustrated is one with which no living artist is better qualified to deal than is Mr. E. M. Ward; and, although in the attitude of the poor Queen of Prussia he may have insisted somewhat too forcibly on the external symptoms of disease of the heart (the malady which proved fatal to her very shortly after the Tilsit interview), the whole work is full of animation and dramatic vigour. The retreating figure of the victorious but ungallant Emperor of the French is admirably drawn, as is also the typically composed and dignified portrait of the father of the present Duke of Sutherland, who, as Lord Gower, was present at the Tilsit "festivities"—festivities which were the death of at least one of the guests. The colour in this otherwise fine work is far from pleasing. Yet another Academician claims notice, in the person of Mr. T. Faed. By this gentleman there are three pictures, none of them certainly deficient in ability, but failing to reach that very high level of conception and capacity which we have a right to expect that such an artist as Mr. T. Faed, R.A., would sustain. For example, "Little Cold Tooties" (105), a mother-and-baby picture, the subject of which might recall Victor Hugo's famous allusion to "children's little pink heels, which throw mothers into ecstasies," is very charming both in design and handling; but it is a mere prettily pleasant puerility amplified to thrice what should be its proper dimensions. Again in "A Runaway Horse" (448), representing a whole village and its inhabitants thrown into the wildest state of commotion by the vagaries of an errant pony, we see a vast amount of excellent painting, ingenuity in posture, and vigour of expression substantially thrown away on a purely farcical incident. A painter of Mr. Faed's calibre has no right to descend lower than comedy. We prefer him in his pathetic moods; but in laughing he should halt at the humorous stage of jocosity. His admirers would be reluctant to see him become a "funny" painter. This good artist is, however, true to himself in "In Time of War" (266), a Highland interior and a Highland family, painted with all the old fire and expressed with all the old pathos. The work only misses the foremost rank among its companions through a vague irresolution of purpose which seems to have flitted across Mr. Faed's mind in scheming out his drama. It is as though the artist, ranging far afield to see what the open and what the covert would yield, had brought down the Russo-Turkish war, and the potential contingency of England being embroiled in that deplorable struggle, by a very long shot indeed. Otherwise, the picture is replete with the acknowledged excellences of the master. There need be no injustice either to Mr. T. Faed or to M. Gaetano Chierici, a new acquaintance at Burlington House, if we contrast "In Time of War" with M. Chierici's "The Widow's Dinner" (1342). The husband deceased has been, we apprehend, a Neapolitan or Calabrese fisherman. There is an unmistakable aroma "*di pescatore ignobile*" about the whole scene. The interior of the poor cabin, the widow, her child, the table and its accessories, are all painted with a vigorous grip and dash of handling that almost impel us to qualify M. Gaetano Chierici as a kind of "Mr. Faed in the Mediterranean." In the breadth of his details, and in the startling, yet not empirical, juxtapositions of strong lights and stronger shadows, he reminds us, however, as closely of the renowned French painter Isabey, one of the instructors, if we mistake not, of Miss Clara Montalba. In any case, M. Chierici's powerful "Widow's Dinner" is a very welcome acquisition to the walls of the Royal

Academy. Let us likewise direct attention to "Goldsmith in his Study" (1326), by Mr. John Faed, F.S.A. The picture turns on the hackneyed anecdote of Sir Joshua Reynolds calling on the poet one day and finding him doubly occupied in turning a couplet and teaching a pet dog to sit on his haunches. Why should not poor Oliver have varied the tedium of writing "copy" by teaching tricks to his dog? Latude has his rats in his Bastille dungeon; and Sir Joshua himself and to take snuff plentifully while he was painting. Mr. John Faed's conception of Goldsmith, and of the splendid untidiness in which the careless poet lived when he was at the meridian of his fame, is clever, but slightly too conventional. The figure of Sir Joshua Reynolds is weak; but the painting of the morocco-leather covered chair and the dog in the foreground are decidedly the best portions of the work, and are simply admirable. Close to "Goldsmith in his Study" hangs M. Adrien Moreau's large, elaborate, and thoughtfully treated "Dancing Bear" (1325), a mediæval composition, the humour of which has more of the savour of Montaigne than of Rabelais, and the quaint, dry treatment of which reminds us now of the late Baron Leys and now of the happily extant M. Alphonse Legros. The drawback to M. Moreau's meritorious performance lies in the circumstance that it is too dry, and verges in handling on the harsh and stringy; and, whether from some technical fault in the medium employed in painting or some misconception in the artist's eye of the canons of aerial perspective, the foreground, which is crowded with figures, seems to have lost its due prominence, and to have become absorbed in the buildings of the middle distance. Another Continental artist (we suppose), M. Francesco Vine, sends a lively scene in a wine-cellar, entitled "An Insinuating Wretch" (1327), full of bright colour and vivacious handling, but somewhat too typical of the oleographic style of art now so popular in the shop windows.

Mr. I. C. Hook, R.A., was crowned long ago, not precisely with a robe of ice and a diadem of snow as Monarch of Mont Blanc—those regalia belong indisputably to Mr. William Beverly—but with a robe of cerulean blue, turned up with sparkling spray, and with a diadem of seaweed enriched by cockle-shells, nautilus, anemones, and hermit crabs. In "Word from the Missing" (126)—a bottle, with news about a wreck in it possibly, picked up on the seashore—Mr. Hook is in a dramatic and a pensive mood. In "The Gull-catcher" (182) he is breezy, racy, and as salt as salt can be. "He Shot a fincheshot" (337), is a delightful tableau of rural life, in which, however, the background fails, somehow, to harmonise with the group of dead game—wonderfully well painted as it is—in the foreground. "Friends in Rough Weather" (380) is a very stirring and broadly effective seapiece, based on the custom prevalent in some parts of Devonshire of training dogs to swim through the surf to boats returning to shore in rough weather and bring to shore a rope by which those on land haul the craft to the beach.

Had Mr. Briton Rivière's pabulum of work been confined to the tenderly imagined and as tenderly executed "Legend of St. Patrick" (70), that distinguished artist would have done enough, this year, to vindicate the high position which he holds in his own walk of art. Touchingly beautiful as is, however, the St. Patrick fondling the little fawn which he has preserved from the hunters, Mr. Rivière's second picture, "Lazarus" (589), is calculated to awaken in an enhanced degree the curiosity and the admiration of the public. The sacred story of Lazarus has been treated realistically by the painter, but not with realism so exaggerated as to detract from the strength of the devotional associations connected with the episode. The beggar-man lies in the rich man's gate, and the dogs—precisely such deplorable curs as the tourist finds swarming, to his discomfort, in the streets of Eastern towns—are licking his sores. The fidelity to nature in the expression of the animals is really marvellous, and the *ensemble* of the picture is as solemn as it is graphic; yet some slight exception might be taken to the recumbent figure of the mendicant, who is a youth almost good-looking, his lower limbs swathed in drapery which is assuredly not ragged enough in texture, while it is too rich in hue, and who presents, on the whole, much more the appearance of being absorbed in pensive meditation than of being steeped to the lips in misery and destitution.

Mr. J. Pettie, R.A., who is an exhibitor of four pictures this year, has made a remarkable gratifying display of his strength. His most popular picture will probably be the majestic portrait of the "Black" knight, discreetly called in the catalogue "A Knight of the Seventeenth Century" (96); but this portrait—albeit eminently striking—is by no means Mr. Pettie's most important contribution to the exhibition. "Hunted Down" (28), the gaunt Highland cateran taking refuge from his pursuers among rocks as savage as himself and with his claymore in his hand, preparing to sell his life as dearly as he can, is undeniably powerful in drawing, composition, and colour; but it is not strongly characteristic of Mr. Pettie's manner, containing as it does a preponderance of landscape, whereas it is in the delineation of the figure, dramatically and picturesquely treated, that the artist most especially shines. "A Lady of the Seventeenth Century" (272) is a daring and successful imitation of Vandyck, very magisterial in its handling and lustrous in its shadows; but, to our mind, the best example of the artist here is "The Sword and Dagger Fight" (203). The composition, the attitude of the combatants in the deadly fray, and the skilful play of light and shade are worthy of Meissonier; but our English painter surpasses the renowned Frenchman in breadth of execution and vigour of effect. While Mr. Pettie may be said, this year, to have surpassed the efforts of the last three or four seasons, it can scarcely be said that Mr. W. G. Orchardson, A.R.A., who sends only two pictures, comes fully up to his accustomed mark. "Queen of Swords" (174), an eighteenth century rendering of the climax of a country dance is, as a piece of grouping, worthy of all praise; but the countenances of the dancers, who ostensibly should be at the acme of sprightliness, are wan and mournful; their very apparel, even, looks faded and threadbare; the ball-room itself is shabbily furnished, and the entire scene wears a dejected and indigent aspect. Why should Mr. Orchardson's pictorial mind thus be sickled o'er with the pale cast of thought—or of raw umber? "Jessica" (1388), a scene from "The Merchant of Venice," is a much finer picture; but it can scarcely be qualified as an unmingled success. It is too crudely yellow in tone, and altogether too sketchy. From this last drawback the chief among the four pictures sent by Mr. W. F. Yeames, A.R.A., is certainly free. "Amy Robsart" (1027) is a work of very large dimensions, very grandly and solidly treated. The episode in the life of Leicester's hapless wife selected by the painter for illustration is where the infamous Tony Forster and his accomplices enter in the dead of night the poor lady's chamber, stifle her in bed, and fling her body downstairs, "thereby believing the world would have thought it a mischance, and so blinded their villany; and the morning after, with the purpose that others should know of her end, did Forster, on pretence of carrying out some behest of the Countess, bring a servant to the spot where the body lay at the foot of the stairs." Thus writes Aubrey in his

"History of Berkshire," and of that quaint chronicler Mr. Yeames has approved himself a most powerful interpreter. The action of the drama is, it must be admitted, far from agreeable; but the same may be said of many of Paul Delaroche's most moving scenes drawn from the Tudor and Stuart periods in our history. Mr. Yeames takes his art, as he has a right to do, *au grand sérieux*. It is essentially a tragedy which he has chosen to paint, and he has treated it from beginning to end in a duly tragic style. The drawing throughout is extremely able, and the entire work is nobly creditable to the school of which Mr. Yeames is so accomplished an exponent.

THE DORÉ GALLERY.

To the Doré Gallery, New Bond-street, where the works of the most prolific, the most vigorous, and the most imaginative of modern French painters constitute a permanent element of attraction to a very large and influential section of the public, a fresh feature of undoubted interest has recently been added in the shape of a colossal picture in oil illustrating, in M. Gustave Doré's most grandiose manner, the miracle of the Brazen Serpent. The supernatural event recorded in the twenty-first chapter of Numbers is, albeit its inner *geist* enshrines one of the most recondite of doctrinal mysteries, narrated with such sublimely simplicity as to commend itself at once to the painter who would strive to interpret its outward semblance: and this M. Doré has done with all the graphic force and fervour of which he is so approved a master. Nicolas Poussin and Lebrun have already essayed to treat this exalted theme, but their pictures did not go much beyond the standard of academic accuracy and conventionality. M. Gustave Doré, one of whose essential conditions of artistic existence is his thorough originality, has grappled with the subject in his own manner, and has imparted to it a characteristic *cachet* unmistakably peculiar to a painter who is bold enough to think for himself, and whose thoughts are, as a rule, noble and just. The immense canvas is crowded with figures, exhibiting a seemingly inexhaustible variety of attitude and gesture; and, although the scene of horror and of subsequent deliverance delineated might without difficulty be made to lend itself to an exaggerated mode of treatment, the general ordinance of the picture is full of sober and dignified gravity. Altogether "The Brazen Serpent" is fully worthy to be hung in a gallery which contains among others such renowned works from Gustave Doré's hands as "The Prætorium," "The Entry into Jerusalem," and "The Dream of Pilate's Wife."

Among the art-occurrences of the week—occurrences which at this season of the year come pressing one on another thick and fast as the procession of the regal phantoms in "Macbeth"—must be mentioned the exhibition, at Messrs. Agnew's old galleries in Waterloo-place, of a highly interesting series of water-colour drawings of the scenery and domestic life of Japan, executed by Mr. Frank Dillon. The accomplished sculptor Count Gleichen, having completed his statue of Alfred the Great, has permitted the critics to inspect his work at his studio at St. James's Palace prior to the statue being sent to its destination at Wantage. Of Mr. Dillon's Japanese drawings, and of Count Gleichen's memorial of the illustrious Saxon king, we hope to be able to speak more in detail next week; we furthermore notice that on May 27 and 28 Sir Noel Paton's picture of "Christ the Good Shepherd," dedicated by special permission to her Majesty the Queen, will be submitted to private view at Mr. Richardson's Gallery in New Bond-street; and, finally, we have to remark that throughout the week the connoisseurs who have the *entrée* at Christie's have been admiring the singularly representative collection of water-colour drawings formed by Mr. John Knowles, of Manchester, which will be brought to the hammer at the great sale-rooms in King-street, St. James's, this instant Saturday. Mr. Knowles's collection comprises specimens of almost every renowned water-colourist of the English school; and it is especially rich in examples of Clarkson Stanfield, William Hunt, Bonington, Burton, David Roberts, J. F. Lewis, Sir John Gilbert, J. E. Millais, and last, but not least, J. M. W. Turner.

Messrs. Christie, Manson, and Woods sold the remainder of Mr. George Fox's pictures last Saturday. The day's sale realised £20,800, making a total for the collection of £33,614.

A sale of a large collection of the works of George Cruikshank was held on Tuesday at Messrs. Sotheby and Co.'s rooms, Wellington-street, and the lots comprised many of his rarest productions. High prices were realised.

The portrait of the late Earl of Derby which was presented a short time ago to the Mayor and Corporation by Lord Skelmersdale and others, who were acting as a committee, has been hung in the Manchester Townhall.

The late Mr. Jabez Burns, D.D. and LL.D., memorial committee has resolved to set up a bust of the late doctor in Sicilian marble, on a pedestal of the same material, and have unanimously selected Mr. Belt to execute the work.

The annual meeting of the Sunday Society took place last Saturday afternoon at the Freemasons' Tavern. Its object is to obtain the opening of museums, art-galleries, libraries, and gardens on Sunday. The Dean of Westminster presided, and advocated the views of the society in an address of considerable length. Among the other speakers were Professor Tyndall, Professor Huxley, Professor Morley, Dr. Richardson, the Rev. J. Oakley, the Rev. M. Wilks, and Mr. Joseph Arch.

Mr. Gladstone presided at a lecture given last Saturday at the London Institution, before the Cymmrodorion Society, on the Potter's Art in Britain. After an instructive lecture by Professor Rudler, the right hon. gentleman, in proposing a vote, spoke at some length on ancient pottery, on the characteristics of the several porcelain factories established during the last century in England, expressing, in conclusion, his opinion that porcelain work was a branch of fine art, characterised by the peculiarity that, within certain limits of size, it might be applied to the production of the human figure, in groups, and with a free use of colour, to an extent beyond any other description of art.

At the sixty-second annual dinner of the Artist's General Benevolent Institution, which was held at Willis's Rooms last Saturday evening, Sir W. Harcourt, M.P., presided. In the course of his speech he referred to the intense study and the careful attention required for the proper understanding and appreciation of art; spoke of the amount and the variety of art-criticism in the present day; and pointed out that not in art alone, but in many other subjects, the faults to which people were prone were a spirit of exaggeration and of sentimentalism, and a love of excitement of thought. Subscriptions to the amount of £2200 were announced.

There have been potato riots in the county of Mayo. At Castlebar on Saturday the "forestallers," as the buyers for export are termed, were watched, and if a purchase was made the bags were cut and the potatoes scattered about.

ROYAL INSTITUTION LECTURES.

EXPANSION BY HEAT.

Professor Tyndall began his fourth lecture on Thursday, the 3rd inst., by proving that putrefaction is a phenomenon of life. The microscopic animalcules termed bacteria, swarming in an infusion of cucumber, had, by slow oxidation, consumed all the oxygen of the air in the flask, leaving behind nitrogen and carbonic acid. He then proceeded to illustrate, by experiments, the augmentation of the volume of bodies by heat, which he explained to be due to the increase of the motion of the atoms of the substance. The range of this atomic vibration differs in different bodies, being twice as great in lead and zinc as it is in iron. Thus, the expansion of brass, an alloy of zinc and copper, was shown to be greater than that of iron. By a most ingenious arrangement, the slight expansion of a bar of lead, when clasped by a warm hand, was made visible to the audience; while, on the other hand, a steel bar was broken by the force of heated iron contracted by pouring cold water upon it. The Professor also explained how these forces of expansion by heat and contraction by cold had been utilised, especially in restoring bending walls to the upright position. After defining the liquid condition of matter to be that in which the atoms are so far unlocked as to be enabled to glide and roll round each other, yet still retaining a strong power of cohesion, he stated that liquids, as a general rule, expand by heat more than solids. This property is employed in thermometers. It differs in various liquids. Thus alcohol expands more than water, as was shown. The remarkable fact that water contracts by cold till the temperature falls to between 38 deg. and 39 deg. Fahrenheit, when it begins to expand, and continues to do so, till at 32 deg. it crystallises and becomes ice, was exhibited in a beautiful manner. There is, therefore, a certain point in the temperature of water at which, if it be heated, expansion sets in, and, if it be cooled, contraction sets in. This point corresponds with the "maximum density" of water. These phenomena were explained in accordance with the theory of atomic polarity, illustrated by models. Several stout iron bottles, broken during the lecture by the expansion of water in them, congealed by being placed in a freezing mixture, were exhibited. Various illustrations were then given of the expansion of gases and vapours. Thus a bladder containing a little air swelled out when placed over gas flames. The principle of ventilation was also illustrated. The flame of a candle in a glass receiver with an open shaft became dimmer and dimmer as the oxygen was consumed and carbonic acid formed, but resumed its brightness when fresh air was supplied and the results of combustion withdrawn, by dividing the shaft vertically.

MINUTE AND LOWLY FORMS OF LIFE.

The Rev. W. H. Dallinger, at the evening meeting on Friday, the 4th inst., gave an account of some recent researches into the origin and development of minute and lowly forms of life. He began by affirming that to-day presents us with a magnificent generalisation based upon absolute truth; that which lies within it and forms the fibre of its fabric being the establishment of a continuity, an unbroken line of unity running from the base to the apex of the entire organic series. That this continuity does not stop on the outmost border of the organic world, but pushes its way down and onward into the not-living and unorganised until all nature is a continuous whole, Mr. Dallinger said cannot be doubted; but the statement that we have found it, and that facts have been presented showing us how the not-living passes into the living, is without foundation: the life-history of the minute septic organisms which are supposed to originate "spontaneously" is unknown. The necessity for working out the developmental history of typical groups in this debatable ground, by which their mode of origination would be made plain, led Mr. Dallinger to employ the best and most powerful lenses for watching the same form ultimately through all its transformations without intermission, and to devise a means for preserving a drop of the putrescent fluid from evaporation for an indefinite time, and yet allowing of its examination with the highest powers continuously. In this important inquiry he was warmly aided by Dr. J. Drysdale, of Liverpool, whereby mutual confirmation and continuous observation were secured. They began on the Monads, a group of putrefactive organisms closely allied to Bacteria, and in the course of four years worked out exhaustively the entire development of six forms. The lecturer described the history of two of these forms, the largest and the smallest, illustrated by transparencies drawn by himself from nature by a simple method of his own, whereby all the phases of their lives were clearly displayed. The issue of the work was that, whilst all the six forms multiplied by self-division of "fission," they were in every case proved to be dependent ultimately upon vital parental products, such as sporules or ova. These genetic products or eggs were proved to be capable of developing after exposure to heat twice as great as that which would kill the adults. This showed that the appearance of these septic organisms in closed flasks after the contained infusion had been exposed to temperatures killing adults is no proof that these organisms had arisen "de novo," or spontaneously; the given heat had simply not destroyed the ova. Mr. Dallinger also ascertained by experiments, that when known monad-germs are diffused through a closed chamber, such as those by which Professor Tyndall has shown that the presence of motes in the air is needed before boiled filtered infusions can be smitten with putrescence, the known monad germs behave precisely like the supposed germs of Bacteria. That is to say, when the germs of monads obtained from a dried infusion were diffused through the chamber, and their presence demonstrated by the lime-light, if suitable fluids were exposed where the motes fell, the monads invariably appeared; but if the chamber were allowed to become "optically pure," to have no motes in its atmosphere, no monads appeared when the fluid was exposed. This points to a confirmation of the inference that the motes which are precursive of putrescence—the origination of Bacteria—in Professor Tyndall's experiments on these organisms, are germs of Bacteria.

BABYLONIAN SCIENCE, LAW, AND TRADE.

The Rev. A. H. Sayce began his third and concluding lecture on Saturday, the 5th inst., with an account of the state of scientific knowledge in ancient Accad or Babylonia, which has been truly described as the birthplace of astronomy, astrology, and, necessarily, of the mathematics. In Chaldean arithmetic the unity was 60 and the fractions were duodecimal; and in the British Museum exist tablets containing traces of what may be termed a "Euclid." Astronomical observatories were founded in every city, and fortnightly reports were sent to the King. The "Observations of Bel" (the middle part of the heavens), a standard work, translated into Greek by Berossus, contains notices of the movements of the sun and the planets; and a comet, which appeared in 1150 B.C., is graphically described, as well as eclipses; and spots in the sun are noticed. The night was divided into watches of three hours each; and progress of time in the day was recorded by the sun-dial and clepsydra, or water-clock. There were four seasons and twelve lunar months in the Chaldean year, and one intercalary month. There were

five "sabbaths," or "days of rest" in the month, and every day was put under the protection of some deity. The constellations were named, and astrology was carefully cultivated, of which Mr. Sayce gave several illustrations; and "weather almanacks" were made. Specimens of the Babylonian law-books, the oldest in the world, were quoted, showing the honourable position of women and the protection of slaves. One statute enacts "that whatever a married woman encloses shall be her own property." Tablets exist giving details respecting Babylonian and Assyrian taxation, commerce, and banking, and, besides deeds of sale, other documents mention the lending out at interest objects in silver, iron, and other metals. In the British Museum is the private will of Sennacherib, and also (the last fruits of the labours of the late George Smith) cheques and deeds of a banking firm, from the reign of Nabopolassar, father of Nebuchadnezzar, to that of Darius Hystaspis, found in jars used as "safes." Traces of a work on agriculture, resembling the "Works and Days" of Hesiod, have been found, of which specimens were given, as well as of the songs of the ox-drivers, such as "Heifer that thou art, be yoked to the cow; the plough's handle is strong; the share cuts deep; lift it up, lift it up!" In concluding, Mr. Sayce remarked that the Chaldeans were pre-eminently a literary people, and great promoters of education, in which they were followed by their conquerors, the Assyrians. The great library of Assur-bani-pal was open to all his subjects, and amongst them the Accadian language was cultivated by the upper classes, as we do Latin. These ancient nations thoroughly grasped the fact that without literature there can be no history.

FIERY METEORS AND METEORIC STONES.

Dr. J. Hall Gladstone began his fourth lecture on Tuesday, the 8th inst., by describing and illustrating the phenomena termed shooting stars, which sometimes appear singly and sometimes periodically in showers, diverging from one point in the heavens, especially about Aug. 10 and Nov. 13-14. They are now believed to enter our atmosphere from the planetary spaces, and to be connected with the orbit of comets. They probably are very small pieces of solid matter, ignited by heat generated through rapid compression of the air, and are thus dissipated into powder. Besides these there are larger meteors (fire-balls or bolides), which dash through the air and burst into pieces, frequently with a loud report, leaving a luminous track. Their strongly-marked colours often change, but give little indication of their composition. Records of these meteors have been kept by the Chinese since B.C. 687. These greater meteors are sometimes accompanied by falling stones, either singly or in fragments, scattered over several miles of country. In ancient times they were much venerated; and it has been thought that the Palladium of Troy and "the image which fell down from Jupiter" (Acts xix. 35) were meteorites. In the British Museum there are masses, varying in size from rough powder to one which fell in Australia weighing three tons and a half, believed to represent 320 falls of meteorites. They are usually fragmentary masses of irregular shape, with an outer crust, due to the melting or oxidising effect of rapid passage through the air. These meteorites may be divided roughly into two classes: some are metallic, mainly consisting of iron and nickel; others are crystalline rock, chiefly silicates of magnesium; the majority include both kinds. The rarer constituents are cobalt, copper, tin, titanium, vanadium, carbon, and chlorine. In some of these stones hydrocarbons have been detected; and the peculiarly constituted iron when heated frequently gives off the gases, carbonic acid, carbonic oxide, or hydrogen. The mineralogical characters of these stones and their probable origin are being specially studied by Professor Story Maskelyne, Dr. W. Flight, Mr. Sorby, and other scientific men. Among the experiments, the supposed way in which meteorites containing iron burn was shown by igniting a piece of meteoric iron. The cause of the shattering and explosion was thus suggested:—A piece of thick glass held in a large gas-flame soon became very hot on the outside, though, like the meteors, cool inside, and in a short time exploded into myriads of pieces, with a sharp report. Above a hundred fine specimens of meteorites and meteoric irons were exhibited, kindly contributed by Professor Maskelyne, Mr. Ludlam, Dr. Flight, Professor Tennant, Mr. Gregory, and others; some of which fell in the fifteenth century, and others within the last few years. A view of the great Disco meteor was thrown upon the screen, and photographs of the more important meteorites shown.

MECHANICAL EQUIVALENT OF HEAT.

Professor Tyndall's fifth lecture, given on Thursday, the 10th inst., was principally devoted to explanations and illustrations of the grand theory of "the mechanical equivalent of heat." In the first place, a leaden weight was raised by a pulley to the ceiling and suddenly let fall, striking the ground. It was again raised, but let fall slowly with friction of the string through finger and thumb. In the first case heat was generated in the weight; in the second, heat was generated in the finger, thumb, and string. The quantities were equal, and both abstracted from the energy due to the consumption of the muscle. The same result was produced by raising the weight by a compressed air-engine. The air was cooled by the process, and the heat restored by the impact of the lead. It was then described how Dr. Joule caused descending weights to warm water and mercury by stirring them; and how, after a multitude of experiments, he was able to establish a relation between the space through which the weight descended and the heat generated by the descent, and thereby to calculate the "mechanical equivalent of heat." The term "foot-pound" means the weight of one pound raised one foot from the ground. Dr. Joule proved that the quantity of heat sufficient to raise one pound of water one degree centigrade in temperature is equivalent to 1390 foot-pounds. It would consequently raise 1390 lbs. one foot from the ground, or raise one pound 1390 ft. After explaining and illustrating what is meant by specific heat at constant volume and specific heat at constant pressure, and that the excess of the latter over the former is due to the consumption of heat in work, Professor Tyndall explained how Dr. Mayer, by experimenting with gases, had arrived at the same results as Dr. Joule, the figures being something more than 1389. Placing before his audience a pound of coal, Professor Tyndall said that its combustion, if it were all converted into mechanical power, would lift 110,000 lb. a hundred feet from the ground, and its fall would generate the same amount of heat as that produced by its combustion. He also stated that fired rifle-bullets are partially fused by impact, and exhibited an example. He then explained the old theory respecting the supposed different capacities for heat possessed by different substances, and contrasted it with the dynamical theory. In the concluding part of the lecture the Professor illustrated the generation of heat by the compression of gases and by the solidification of salts in solution, and the production of cold by the expansion of gases and the solution of salts, the phenomena in all cases substantiating the dynamical theory.

SECRET SOCIETIES IN RUSSIA.

Mr. D. Mackenzie Wallace, author of the remarkable work entitled "Russia," gave the discourse at the evening meeting

on Friday, the 11th inst. He gave a brief sketch of Russian history down to the reign of Peter the Great, when the political system was entirely changed, and the rulers began to aim at the civilisation and moral reformation of their subjects, by a bureaucratic centralised system. The arbitrary Paul, assassinated in 1801, was succeeded by Alexander I., educated by a Swiss philosopher, and deeply imbued with French revolutionary doctrines, which he proposed to put into practice by establishing a pure Federal Republic, with virtuous, happy citizens, and retiring into private life. He soon discovered his mistake; he saw insubordination and corruption everywhere; he lost his faith in Liberalism, fell a victim to religious melancholy, and became a devoted adherent of Metternich. The effect upon the young noblesse was different. It led to a passionate desire for reform, and the construction of secret societies to obtain it. The first was the "Union of Salvation," in 1816, chiefly composed of officers of the Guards. It was reorganised in 1818, as the "Union for Public Welfare," and professed to help the Government in suppressing official malpractices. But as the Emperor became more reactionary, a new society was formed, with the object of annihilating the Imperial family and constituting a Federal Republic. At the death of Alexander, in 1825, the attempted military insurrection failed. Five officers were hanged, and above a hundred transported to Siberia. During the reign of Nicholas we hear of no secret societies, but they began to reappear through the depression caused by the Crimean War, and the present reign in some respects resembles that of Alexander I. It began with a great enthusiasm for reform, and the emancipation of the serfs took place in 1863. But the Polish insurrection produced strong reactionary measures, and secret societies sprung up, but of a very different type, proposing the abolition of religion, marriage, and private property, and the substitution of Communism for the present government. The fundamental principle of the latest of these societies is absolute equality and mutual responsibility, with much self-negation. Its officers succeed in rotation, part to be educated and part uneducated. There is an active propaganda, by means of conversation, reading, excitement of discontent, publication and circulation of books and tracts, and the establishment of libraries and funds. Agitation is promoted to terrify the Government and the privileged classes, and to raise the spirit of the people. Mr. Wallace's opinion is that the extreme devotion of the mass of the nation to the Czar will prevent these societies having any more success than Fenianism had in Great Britain.

PIERRE JEAN DE BERANGER.

Mr. Walter Herries Pollock, M.A., devoted the first of a course of three lectures on modern French poetry, given on Saturday, the 12th inst., to the life and works of Béranger, whose influence over his countrymen was almost unprecedented. He himself never claimed a higher title than that of a songwriter. "A man," he said, "was wanted to speak to the people a language it knows and loves, and to raise up followers who should preach on the same text after him. That man I have been." He attributed his success to giving the popular songs a higher tone, since the people after 1789 gradually took their share in public affairs; and he asserted that henceforth for them literature ought to be cultivated. He was born in a poor street in Paris, Aug. 19, 1780, at the house of his grandfather, a tailor, his father, a notary's clerk, having deserted his wife. From his grandparents he derived his first literary tastes, and his experience under the "Reign of Terror" and the disorders of the Republic no doubt tended to reconcile his love for the people and their liberty with the adoration of the Emperor Napoleon, regarded as their protecting deity. Béranger partook of his father's brief prosperity in 1798 through a successful speculation; but, becoming destitute in 1804, he received kind patronage from Lucien Bonaparte and others, but declined the offers of employment as a classical poet, journalist, and critic, knowing his unfitness for the work. A small place, however, was found for him in the Imperial University, and in 1814 he witnessed the entrance of the Allies into Paris. His sympathies were not with the Bourbonists, and his first published volume, in 1815, narrowly escaped prosecution. His two volumes issued in 1821 led to a trial, which resulted in a fine and three months' imprisonment, which he passed very gaily. A heavier fine and longer imprisonment followed the publication of other volumes in 1825 and 1828. At the revolution in 1830 he felt that his work was done. He refused both office and pension; published another volume in 1833; wrote his biography in 1840; was elected deputy for the department of the Seine in 1848, against his will, resigning after a few days; and till his death (in 1857) lived in retirement. His will expressed a wish for a private funeral, but the crowds of people cried enthusiastically, "Honneur, honneur à Béranger!" In private life he was one of the most lovable of men, ever helping others out of his poverty. The general character of his songs is a mixture of gaiety and tenderness, well exhibited in "La Bonne Vieille," in "Le Grenier" (of which Thackeray has written a charming version termed "The Garret"), and in "Les Etoiles qui filent" ("The Shooting Stars"). The lecture was concluded with the reading and commenting upon a specimen of Béranger's songs relating to Napoleon, "Les Souvenirs du Peuple," in which an old woman tells her memories of the Emperor to another generation.

Professor James Dewar, the new Fullerian Professor of Chemistry, will on Tuesday next begin a course of three lectures on the Chemical Philosophy of Sir Humphry Davy. On Friday next a discourse will be given by Lieutenant-General Strachey on the Physical Causes of Indian Famines.

The State apartments of Windsor Castle will be open to the public on and after Monday next, the 21st inst.

A military ball, the first of the summer season, was held yesterday week at Woolwich Barracks.

Mr. James Glaisher, F.R.S., in his "Remarks on the Weather during the Quarter ending March 31, 1877," says that the weather during the quarter has been for the most part exceptional; the readings of the barometer have been usually below their averages, with frequent stormy weather; the temperature of the air was high both in January and February; rain fell almost continuously and was excessive in January, and there has been very little sunshine throughout the quarter.

A discovery of ancient coins has been made on the Montrane estate, a few miles from Cupar Fife, the property of Mr. Allan Gilmour. In draining a portion of land the labourers struck on what appeared to be a boulder, but which was subsequently discovered to be a pot. A stone was firmly wedged into its mouth, and on being removed it was found that the vessel was filled with coins, the total number of pieces being nine thousand. Most of them have the appearance of well-worn sixpences; a few are of the size of a florin, though not quite so thick, and a small number are about the size of a shilling. They are all silver, and, so far as has been ascertained, of the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries. The pot, which is twenty inches by thirteen in diameter, is in excellent preservation, and is of bronze.



THE GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS OF RUSSIA ARRIVING AT THE VILLA ANTACHI, HIS QUARTERS IN GALATZ.
FROM A SKETCH BY ONE OF OUR SPECIAL ARTISTS.



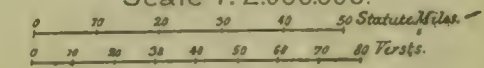
THE WAR: A SKETCH IN BUCHAREST, BY ONE OF OUR SPECIAL ARTISTS.



Map of the
DANUBE
and of the Passes of the
BALKANS.

By E.G. Ravenstem, F.R.G.S.

Scale 1:2,000,000.



Altitudes in English Feet.

Names in Walachia are spelt according to the
Romanian Orthography.

t = tz, s = sh, j = sh, e = ye, u, at the end of a word, if
preceded by a consonant, mute.

ce ci, ge, gi, che, chi = che, chi, je, ji, ke, ki.

di = s(dior = sori), ti = tz (tiolu = tzol), si = sh (sioldu = shold).

MAP OF THE DANUBE AND THE BALKANS.

We present this week a Special Map of the Seat of War in Europe, drawn by Mr. E. G. Ravenstein expressly for the occasion; and we trust it will be found equally useful with our last week's Map of the Seat of War in Asia, and that which accompanied it, of the Country around Kars, to assist our readers in following the movements of the Russian and Turkish armies in both the impending campaigns. The present Map comprises the whole extent of the plains of the Lower Danube, west to east, from the frontiers of Hungary and Servia to the Black Sea; north to south, from the Carpathians, and the Russian province of Bessarabia, to the vicinity of Adrianople, in Rumelia, south of the Balkans. It thus includes the whole of Wallachia, or the southern portion of what is now styled Roumania, on the left bank of the Danube, and the whole country of Bulgaria, a term usually confined by politicians to the strip of land between the right bank of the Danube and Balkans, but which ought to be extended south of those mountains, as Bulgarians are the chief inhabitants of the districts north and west of Adrianople. These districts, indeed, situated along the valley of the Maritza, were the actual scene of the horrible massacres of the Bulgarian population a twelvemonth ago, which did not take place anywhere in the region officially named Bulgaria, north of the Balkan range. We have spoken elsewhere of the Turkish fortresses on the Lower Danube, more especially those of Rustchuk and Silistria, with the positions yet lower down that stream, at Braila and Reni, near the town of Galatz, where the Russians threatened to cross into the Dobrudscha. The places named Machin, Isakcha or Isakia, and Tuldscha, on that part of the river's lower course, will be found in our Map, and these are of great strategic value. Higher up the Danube, and above one hundred and fifty miles south-west of Galatz, is the fortress of Rustchuk, now menaced by a large Russian force assembled at Giurgevo or at Banasia, on the Roumanian side. The history of former wars between Turkey and Russia also leads us to direct the reader's attention to Silistria, and to the positions of Oltenitza and Turtukai, standing over against each other, which are likely again to be contested. Far away to the westward, approaching the Servian boundary at the Timok, is the fortified town of Widdin, which has recently been bombarded from the Roumanian heights of Kalafat. The city of Bucharest, the capital of Roumania and residence of Prince Charles of Hohenzollern, the ruler of that semi-independent State, appears conspicuously near the centre of our Map. Thirty miles to the north of Bucharest is Ploesti, at this moment the head-quarters of the Grand Duke Nicholas, commander-in-chief of the Russian forces.

The following observations, by Lieutenant-Colonel Howard Vincent, in January last, on the military topography of the Danube and the Balkans, may profitably be studied with the aid of our Map engraved for this publication:—

"The outside world has wasted much time in discussing both the place and the means of crossing that river. Nearly every place has been passed in review, from Kalafat on the west to Tuldscha on the east. Some have thought that the same places will be selected as in 1828, and they have been among those who have insufficiently considered the new order of things established by the possession of the railway. We must bear in mind the character of the country on the right bank of the river—Bulgaria. Its bad roads and the consequent difficulty of preserving lateral communication—its impoverished state, and the impossibility of deriving local supplies. We must consider the capacity of the Turkish troops for disconnected warfare, their inherent incapability of moving, organising, and controlling large bodies. The result will be to show that the Russians must move by land on one, or at most, two or three lines, and endeavour to reap all the benefit they can from superior numbers, organisation, and training.

"The points most favourable for crossing are Giurgevo, Oltenitza, and Kalarash (Kalarasu). On these three points will probably be directed the whole force, with the exception of two divisions which must prevent or check any Turkish movement on the flank, based on Tchernavoda, and facilitated by the railway connecting that place with Kustendji.

"Giurgevo is of these three places naturally the most important; and there must be the gross of the army pass. It is the terminus of the railway and lies opposite Rustchuk, where the Turks are mainly concentrated. The left bank of the Danube is flat and marshy, whereas the Turkish bank forms almost throughout its course a natural parapet. If there be any exception to this rule it is at Giurgevo. A mile below Rustchuk lies the town. A mile from the bank, completely screened from the Turkish view by the houses and a gentle eminence, is the station. The line runs north-east, and it is but very seldom that even a thin wave of smoke can be seen from any eminence likely to be manned by fez-wearing gunners. The Russian troops can therefore be taken to Giurgevo, and the artillery formed up without any great fear of molestation.

"Nor need there be any apprehension of the line being seized by the Turks before the Imperial troops arrive. They possess no pontoon train nor any means of passage whatever. A division of Roumanian soldiers is already at Giurgevo, and they may be supplemented by a train of heavy guns.

"The bombardment of Rustchuk, distant, let us say, 2000 paces, must be a preliminary to any attempt at passage. The town, built mainly of wood, lies in front of the fortress, of bastion type, in dilapidated state, unprovided with guns of any calibre, unsupplied with ammunition, and aided only by a recently constructed earthwork close behind it. My conviction is that Rustchuk would be evacuated in two or three days at most. The river is about three quarters of a mile broad, and flows about two miles and a half an hour, and its passage might, the fortress silenced, be effected by boats—of which at Giurgevo there a large number—flying bridges, and probably by pontoons.

"It may be well here to consider how far this passage, or that at either Oltenitza or Silistria, might be impeded by the Turkish flotilla on the Danube. It consists of seven small gun-boats, carrying one heavy gun, and bearing thin armour. These seven vessels would have to guard a line one hundred miles in length. At no place on the right bank can they obtain the shelter of a creek from the Russian guns. They cannot, therefore, remain concealed until the moment of crossing and then come out to thwart it. They may consequently be destroyed or disabled before a single Russian pontoon is pushed into the stream.

"I will now pass to Oltenitza, about forty miles from Rustchuk and twenty-five from Silistria, and situated at the mouth of the Dembowitza, which connects it with Bucharest. Here the river is 800 yards wide, and both banks offer great facilities for the passage of an army. Opposite is Turtukai, which I have reason to believe to be in so ruined a state as to offer but a merely nominal obstacle. The Dembowitza will enable the Russians to mass at Oltenitza all necessary bridging materials, as readily as will the railway at Giurgevo.

"Kalarash, opposite Silistria, is the last point of passage. It is, I am informed, in the same state in which the events of 1854 left it. The river adapts itself here no less than at Oltenitza to the operation. From Slobodzie a good road leads

to the Danube, and from Silistria runs the main artery of Bulgaria on to Shumla, which north of the Balkan must be the point of concentration.

"To resume. If the passage of the Danube, at these three points of Giurgevo, Oltenitza, and Kalarash, be well preceded by artillery fire, and be simultaneously made, it can hardly fail to prove successful. The Turks have no means of establishing or maintaining communication between Rustchuk, Turtokai, and Silistria, no cavalry, no horses, not even a field telegraph. Nor can they cut in between, for means of passage they have none.

"I have shown that the passage of the Danube presents no serious obstacles. We may, therefore, consider it accomplished. One thing alone must be always present to the Russian officers—the maintenance of friendly relations with the Roumanian peasantry. We must not forget how much the Russians lost in 1828, when their Generals exacted, at minimum prices, fixed by themselves, the provision from the miserable peasantry, of 250,000 measures of corn, 400,000 loads of hay, 50,000 barrels of brandy, and 23,000 oxen. These they paid for by bills, the acceptance of which history does not record. Sixteen thousand peasants were further requisitioned to make hay in the Danubian valley. It is not impossible that the memory of this error may yet do them harm with their Bulgarian co-religionists.

"But we must push on. As I have already said, Shumla is the first point to be gained. It stands on the eastern slope of a chain of mountains forming, as it were, an advanced post to the Balkan range, and separated therefrom by the valley of the Kamstchik, at the junction of several roads some 700 ft. above the Bulgarians plains. The position is superb, and, skilfully treated, might be made almost impregnable. This it certainly is not, for reasons which I will consider. The town of Shumla has about 40,000 inhabitants, and is placed at the base of the heights, instead of having an elevated side within the strongest portion of its defences. It is environed to the north-west and south by a vast crescent of bold hills, and towards the east by a formidable marshy ravine. The town is approached from the north by the Silistria road, from the north-west by a road from Rustchuk, from the west by another road from Rustchuk by Osman Bazar, and from the east by the road from Pravadi to Karnabat. Besides these approaches, by one or more of which it may be turned, there is the Rustchuk and Varna Railway. The metals will, of course, be destroyed, but the roadway must remain, and is not, I believe, defensible in any part. It runs to within fourteen or fifteen miles of the town and forts of Shumla. A station bears its name, but the road therefrom is the Silistrian highway. No work of any description guards this junction, nor is the ground, so far as I remember, well disposed to protect it. Let us suppose that of the 120,000 infantry, 6000 cavalry, and 150 guns which have crossed at Giurgevo, Rustchuk, three fourths shall march in parallel columns along the ordinary road, and the railway track upon Shumla, keeping up their communications of course, and deriving their supplies from Roumania, while the remainder take the circuitous road of Osman Bazar. The line ought to be repaired as they proceed, and if no regular carriages are obtainable, a sufficient number of trolleys may be brought over from Wallachia. A pair of horses are, I believe, well able to draw a dozen loaded trolleys, each holding nearly as much as a military waggon.

"At Turtukai, say 20,000 infantry, 2000 cavalry, and 40 guns, will cross. They must make their way by cross-country roads to Shumla; and this will be the most difficult operation, requiring great care and circumspection. At Silistria 60,000 infantry, 4000 cavalry, and 50 guns should cross, and by the highway effect the junction with the Rustchuk columns. The force of cavalry ought to be of strength to preserve sufficient lateral communication for all practical purposes.

"Shumla is not, strictly speaking, the key to the Balkan passes, for it is twenty miles from them; but, at the same time, its investment is absolutely necessary before the passage of them can be attempted. Varna, on the seacoast, as Colonel Evelyn Wood said, has great but unused capabilities of defence. The taking thereof, if the Russians be successful, opens, first of all, the through railway communication to Rustchuk; then it enables another attack to be directed via Pravadi on Shumla; and, thirdly, renders available the coast road to Burgas and the south, through the easternmost slopes of the Balkan range.

"We will now imagine Shumla to have fallen into the invader's hands, or to be completely invested; the passage of the Balkans, the great barrier of Turkey, has to be effected. This formidable mountain range, separating Bulgaria from Roumelia, runs from west to east, gradually diminishing in height from 5000 to 3000 feet, until they abruptly terminate at Cape Eminch, on the seacoast. Von Moltke says that the difficulty attending the passage of the Balkans lies far more in the paucity and bad state of the roads than upon their height or inaccessibility. The passes, with the single exception of the Schibka (which the Sultan traversed in 1836 in a four-horse carriage) are impracticable, or nearly so, for wheels, and are little more than bridle paths. There are seven passes over the Balkan.

"1. Schumla to Karnabat, by Tjalikavak and Dobroll, called the Bogaz Pass, very difficult and narrow, easily defended, and combining fluvial with mountain impediments.

"2. Pravadi, by Koprikoi and Jenikoi to Aidos, called the Chenga Pass; difficult but successfully used in 1829 by General Rudiger, with the 7th Russian corps in nine days.

"3. The coast road from Varna to Burgas, taken in 1829 by General Roth with the 6th corps.

"4. Timova to Kasanlik—commonly called the Schibka Pass—perhaps now the most practicable of all, a road having been made in 1836, and in any case not very difficult or steep, and easy to be forced.

"5. Tirnova to Slivno or Islamji—called the Iron Gate (Demir Kapu) Pass—very steep, difficult, and almost unexplored.

"6. Tirnova, or Osman Bazar, to Kasan, and thence to Karnabat; very difficult.

"7. The Lovatz Pass to Tatar Bazardjik, which is almost impassable.

"We see, therefore, that three of these passes may be utilised by an invading force. What has been done before may well be done again. It is impossible to suppose that the passes will be neglected by their defenders in the same way as in 1829, but the attempt will be even more serious and formidable."

A lecture on the difficulties of Arctic exploration, and the means of surmounting them by the employment of balloons, will be given next Thursday afternoon, in the Vestry Hall, St. James's, Piccadilly. There will be no charge for admission.

The prizes and certificates awarded by the Gilchrist trustees to the students (consisting of elementary school teachers) who have attended the Charterhouse science course were presented on Tuesday night, in the large room of the Society of Arts, John-street, Adelphi. The Rev. John Rodgers, M.A., presided, and gave away the prizes. Addresses were given by the chairman, Dr. Carpenter, and Sir John Bennett.

THE MAGAZINES.

The *Cornhill* has two contributions of unusual merit. "Transcaucasia" records the impressions of a highly intelligent traveller who visited this interesting region last autumn. He has no doubt that Russian authority is firmly established there, and there seems no reason why it should not be extended much further. The people are well governed and fairly contented; and the dominant power, so cruel a persecutor of Christians in other parts of her empire, is here so tolerant to Mohammedans that the religious difficulty has no existence. On the other hand, Russia has done little to civilise the inhabitants, nor has she in any way impressed the stamp of her nationality upon them. The heterogeneous races constituting the population are most unconformably disposed, manifest no tendency towards amalgamation, and have none of the stuff that goes to the making of a nation. Such considerations, nevertheless, though important in the long run, have little bearing on the military or political transactions in the immediate future. "E.W.G." contributes a highly interesting study on "Lucifer," the great sacred drama of the eminent Dutch poet Vondel, a contemporary of Milton. There can be no doubt that Milton knew and used this work, though his obligations are not extensive. In his description of the overthrow of the rebel angels he might have followed Vondel more closely with advantage. So far as can be judged from some admirably translated specimens, the drama would appear to be characteristically Dutch, combining magnificence of diction and true poetic spirit with heaviness, formality, and frequent want of taste. With all its shortcomings, it is a work far above mediocrity. The remainder of the contents comprises an ingenious disquisition on "Ridicule and Truth," some airy verses by Mr. Locker, the sequels of "Carità," where Mrs. Oliphant seems to be recovering herself, and of Mr. Blackmore's vigorous "Erema;" and the commencement of a promising story, on a smaller scale, entitled "Lizzie's Bargain."

Macmillan is rather poor this month, the only articles, at least, calculated to awaken any general interest being Dean Stanley's genial, but somewhat vague, review of the theological situation before the students of St. Andrews; and a straightforward, sensible, but rather commonplace notice of Miss Martineau's autobiography. Lord E. Fitzmaurice's dissertation on the inextricable tangle of conflicting nationalities in Eastern Europe evinces at any rate a wholesome sense of the almost insoluble difficulties of the question. A history of the Transvaal Republic makes out a strong case for its annexation on the grounds of policy and humanity.

The contents of the *Fortnightly Review* are in general sober and instructive. Mr. H. Sidgwick, by way of filling up a lacuna in Mr. Leslie Stephen's history of English thought in the eighteenth century, contributes a lucid account of the work and influence of Jeremy Bentham. Mr. Morley describes the reforms effected by Turgot as Intendant of Limoges, where the philanthropic statesman made his first essay in the art of government. Mr. Courtney points out how the great European Powers might have effected a peaceful settlement of the Eastern Question, if—a reserve he omits to make—each had not with good reason been utterly distrustful of the rest. Mr. H. Tuttle sketches the confused and unsatisfactory constitution of political parties in Germany, where Parliamentary Government seems in danger of paralysis through the admission, owing to shortsighted annexations and indiscreet legislation, of irreconcilable hostile elements into the national council. Mr. Innes, in a parallel between the present position of the English Ritualists and that of the Scotch Secessionists at the period of the disruption, intimates pretty clearly that no movement so purely sacerdotal as Ritualism will enlist sufficient laical support to make secession respectable. The only article of literary interest is an able review of Barry Cornwall's memoirs, by Mr. G. A. Simcox.

Neither Mr. Tennyson's Montenegrin sonnet nor Mr. Gladstone's sketch of Montenegrin history reflects any special lustre on the *Nineteenth Century*, or will add to the reputation of the writers. Every good sonnet embodies a thought; Mr. Tennyson's only embodies a fact. Mr. Gladstone's paper is too manifestly written *ad captandum*. A much more valuable performance is Mr. Ralston's account of Russian revolutionary literature. Contrary to the experience of other countries, revolutionary agitation in Russia is confined to the upper, or at least to the educated, classes. The bulk of the people, for whose regeneration it is supposed to be carried on, remain almost utterly apathetic. The propaganda is, nevertheless, exceedingly active, and may one day produce important effects if aided by widespread distress among the people, or of encroachments on their peculiar communal system. It would be difficult to exaggerate the wildness of the conspirators on the one hand, or their disinterested devotion on the other. Mr. Carter, who wishes the Church of England to be governed by Convocation, and Mr. J. G. Rogers, who would have it disestablished altogether, both prove considerably too much. Mr. Carter lets out that he would like to reverse the Gorham judgment and restore the First Prayer-Book of Edward VI. Mr. Rogers's picture of the woes of Nonconformists in this bishop-ridden land transgresses the domain of the pathetic and trenches deeply upon that of the ludicrous. Mr. Arthur Arnold is more successful in indicating the true line of advance for the Liberal party in his essay on the abuses of the land laws. The summary of "Recent Science" records some highly interesting experiments in the dissemination of minute germs, and of the photographic action of light on the retina, which seems at last sufficiently established. The conclusion of the "Modern Symposium" is chiefly remarkable for the contribution of Professor Huxley, whose power of exposing fallacies finds ample scope in a discussion of this nature.

The *Contemporary Review* struggles gallantly to maintain the high standard it had reached before the secession of its leading contributors. Although, however, no article in the present number is wholly devoid of merit or interest, the *tout ensemble* is rather heavy. Neither Mr. Hughes nor Mr. Hawes has much of novelty to communicate respecting the Church of England or Wagner's operas, on which their views have so frequently been expressed. Two of the most interesting papers, Professor Zeller's essay on the conflict of Paganism and Christianity and M. Janet's disquisition on Spinoza's not very considerable influence on French philosophic thought, are translations from foreign languages. Mr. Buchanan's "Balder" concludes with a strong reminiscence of "The Ancient Mariner." The other contributions include a half sympathetic, half ironical analysis of Miss Martineau's character; and an acute and thoughtful exposition of "A Reconciling Philosophical Conception," by Mr. A. Main.

The miscellaneous contents of *Fraser* comprise an essay on "The Causes of Pre-Eminence in War;" a full and able review of Crowe and Cavalcaselle's life of Titian; a highly-interesting account of two of the best of contemporary French poets, Coppée and Sully Prudhomme; and studies on two of the founders of Russian poetical literature, Lomonosoff and Kantemier. More interesting than any of these is an analysis of the play composed by Oehlenschläger on the story of Hamlet as recounted by Siso Grammaticus, an example of the direct-objective-treatment-of-a-picturesque-theme, totally

alien to the profound introspection of Shakspeare. "Slavery in Egypt" is a vindication of the good faith of the Khedive in this matter.

The continuation of "Pauline" excepted, the only article in *Blackwood* of the slightest interest is a very entertaining paper on the hybrid but highly expressive dialect which has grown up in India out of the mixture of European idioms with vernacular languages.

The *Month* has a thoughtful essay on "A Comparative Theology," and a ridiculously-inflated, but still interesting, account, by Mr. F. O'Donnell, of the Irish schools and monasteries at a period when Ireland actually was the most cultivated country in Europe. It is satisfactory to find Mr. O'Donnell admitting that the most iniquitous laws from which his countrymen have suffered were passed not only before the Union but even before the Reformation.

In the *Gentleman's Magazine* we note the continuation of Mr. Justin McCarthy's sparkling story; a paper of lively gossip on the pictures at the Garrick Club, by Mr. Percy Fitzgerald; Mr. Sala's "Grand Turk at Home," where a good deal of really valuable historical information is conveyed under cover of a somewhat boisterous gaiety; and Mr. Mallock's analysis of Seneca's "Edipus." The object of the writer of this piece of refined criticism is to discourage the prevalent tendency towards the imitation of the Greek drama. In fact, however, upon his own showing, the spirit of Seneca's plays is anything but Hellenic, and bears far more resemblance to that of the French classical drama, which, with all its infidelity to nature, has unquestionably evinced true vitality. On the other hand, Goethe's "Iphigenia" proves that the Hellenic spirit is not wholly inconsistent with the requirements of the modern stage.

London Society is chiefly remarkable for the continuation of "Proud Maisie," which is kept up with unlagging spirit. It is difficult to single out anything for special notice in *Tinsley* and *Belgravia*, which are, nevertheless, very readable. We have, further, to acknowledge Good Words, The Victoria, The Day of Rest, The Argonaut, The Cosmopolitan Critic, All the Year Round, Cassell's Magazine, The Charing-Cross Magazine, and The Sunday Magazine.

OBITUARY OF EMINENT PERSONS.

THE EARL OF SHREWSBURY AND WATERFORD.

The Right Hon. Charles John Chetwynd Talbot, nineteenth



Earl of Shrewsbury, in the Peerage of England, Earl of Waterford, in the Peerage of Ireland, and fourth Earl Talbot, Viscount Ingestre, and Baron Talbot of Hensol, in the Peerage of Great Britain, Hereditary Great Seneschal (Lord High Steward of Ireland), Captain of the Hon. Corps of Gentlemen at Arms, and a Privy Councillor, died on the 11th inst. He was born April 13, 1830, the eldest son of Henry John, third Earl Talbot, C.B., K.S.I., Admiral R.N., who succeeded his kinsman, Bertram, seventeenth Earl of Shrewsbury, Aug. 10, 1856, as Premier Earl of England. The mother of the nobleman whose decease we record was Lady Sarah Elizabeth, daughter of Henry, second Marquis of Waterford. Lord Shrewsbury was in early life in the 1st Life Guards, but retired in 1853. As Lord Ingestre he sat for several years in the House of Commons—for Stafford, 1857 to 1859; for South Staffordshire, 1859 to 1865; and for Stamford in 1868, in which last-named year he succeeded, at the death of his father, to his hereditary honours. He married, Feb. 15, 1851, Anna Theresa, eldest daughter of the late Richard Howe Cockerell, Esq., Commander R.N., by Theresa, his wife, afterwards Countess of Eglinton, and leaves issue Charles Henry John, Viscount Ingestre, now twentieth Earl of Shrewsbury, born Nov. 20, 1860; Theresa Sussey Helen, Viscountess Castlereagh; Gwendolen Theresa, wife of Lieutenant-Colonel E. Chaplin, M.P.; and Muriel Frances Louisa, Viscountess Helmsley. There is scarcely, in the whole range of European nobility, a family so illustrious in descent and achievement as that of Talbot. The memorable legal controversy which ensued at the death of Bertram, Earl of Shrewsbury, in 1857, is still fresh in people's memory. The decision was in favour of the late Earl Talbot, and it is a curious fact that he had to go back to the time of the Wars of the Roses to connect himself with the parent stem.

The following deaths are also announced:—

The Rev. Edwin Roper Martin, on the 29th ult., at Newnham Paddox, Lutterworth.

Major-General William Forbes, late Bengal Army, on the 6th inst., suddenly, at Dover.

Courtenay Newton, Esq., of Killymeal, Dungannon, J.P., on the 4th inst., aged sixty-three.

William Charles Grant, Esq., of Hillesdon House, Cul-lompton, Devonshire, J.P., on the 4th inst., aged sixty.

The Rev. Francis Bryans, M.A., for thirty-nine years Vicar of Bedford, Chester, on the 3rd inst., aged seventy-six.

Lieutenant-General J. W. Croghan, Royal (late Madras) Artillery, on the 2nd inst., aged seventy-two.

The Right Hon. Thomas Abernethy Erskine, Lord Erskine, on the 10th inst., aged seventy-five. A memoir of his Lordship will appear in our next Number.

Roscoe Cole Shedden, Esq., of Paulerspurg Park, Northamptonshire, and of Hardmead, Bucks, J.P., on the 5th inst., aged sixty-five.

Robert Henry Smith, Esq., Assistant Commissary-General (grandson of James Caldwell Smith, of Cork, King's county), on the 25th ult.

The Rev. W. R. Crotch, M.A., Vicar of Catherington, late Fellow of New College, Oxford, only son of the late William Crotch, Mus. Doc., Oxon, on the 8th inst., aged seventy-seven.

Lieutenant-Colonel Sir John S. Cowell Stepney, Bart., of Ilarcelly, on the 1st inst., aged eighty-six. His memoir will be given next week.

Morgan Vane, Esq., heir presumptive to the barony of Barnard—a title now enjoyed by the Duke of Cleveland—on the 7th inst., in his forty-third year. Mr. Morgan Vane has died without issue, and consequently his cousin, Henry Morgan Vane, Esq., secretary of the Charity Commission, becomes heir presumptive to the barony of Barnard.

CHESS.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

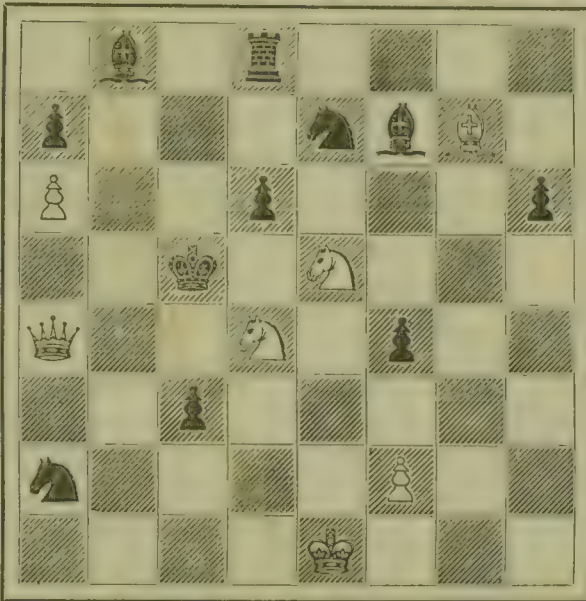
W G (Carrigles).—The verses cited from the Knight's tour will be found in the poems by Currier and Acton Bell, published in 1846.
W G (Pallanza).—The mate is guaranteed against the best defences in the stipulated number of moves.
W E B (Wigmore-street).—1. For variety of play and instructive annotations the Book of the Congress (1862), published by Bohu. 2. There is no work that professes to be a collection of games by inferior players.
J B (Boxford).—You will find Problem No. 1733 worthy of further study. It is not so easy as you appear to imagine, and it certainly cannot be solved in the way you propose, 1. R takes P.
J G F (Ramsgate).—Thanks for the problem. The others have not been overlooked.
Fitzroy Chess Club. —The Pawn's privilege of capturing en passant cannot be exercised after a move has been made.
F C G (Fitzroy C.C.).—Has not the problem forwarded been published before?
J W CHESTER (Macon, U.S.).—In reply to R to K 5th Black can play 1. B to B 5th, a defence you have overlooked.
T H S (Inverness).—We cannot inform you of the address required. The problem is under examination.
C E W (Nottingham).—A problem is wrong if it has more than one solution, and it is of small importance whether these number two or two dozen. Thanks for the trouble you have taken.
E L G (Blackwater).—1. R to K R 2nd is the correct defence against 1. Q to B 7th in Problem No. 1727.
R W BAYSON.—Your notation is intelligible enough, but your proposed solution will not hold water. On the second move the Black King can capture the Knight.
M F P (Arlington Park).—We do not reply to letters through the post. Your analysis of No. 1731 is correct, but we have not space to spare for the variations. An explanation of the English chess notation is given in Staunton's Handbook.
CORRECT SOLUTIONS OF PROBLEM No. 1731 received from D H J, G Finch, Bishop's Pawn, H W, Berates, and Queen of Connaught.
CORRECT SOLUTIONS OF PROBLEM No. 1732 received from Cheltenham, L. Mabbily, J G Finch, Oakley, L J O, E E Cordner, H Beutmann, Troutbeck, Bishop's Pawn, W Owen, Owllet, and Titchfield.
CORRECT SOLUTIONS OF PROBLEM No. 1733 received from Triton, W Nelson, Harrivian, Tippet, L S R, J Wontone, Ouly Jones, R T King, Tally-ho, E Worsley, N E D, E R Stone, J Williams, W Alston, Simplex, S Western, R Roughton, Mechanic, J S W, R Burger, Littleleg, A G R, American, Leonora and Leon, Black Knight, T R Y, Long Stou, W Lee, E L G, B Lewy, A Bardscombe, Q W Crusky, E Frau, J de Monsteyn, Cant, W Lesson, E P Vulliamy, E Burkhard, East Marden, and H B.
NOTE.—Nearly a hundred correspondents have forwarded a proposed solution of this problem commencing with 1. R takes P, continuing, after Black has played 1. B takes R, with 2. R takes B, and on the defence then moving the King to Q 4th, with 3. R takes P, mate! It is worth noting that so large a number of problem solvers should fall into the same error, ignoring the Black Rook at K R 3rd—a piece that effectually bars the proposed solution.

SOLUTION OF PROBLEM No. 1732.

WHITE. BLACK. WHITE. BLACK.
1. R to R sq. K takes either Kt. 3. R or B mates accordingly.
2. R to Q sq. Any move.

PROBLEM No. 1735.

By J. DE HONSTEYN.
BLACK.



WHITE.
White to play, and mate in three moves.

CHESS IN VIENNA.

The following Game was played at Vienna between Herr A. SCHWARTZ and Mr. S. HAMEL, of Nottingham. — (Gioco Piano.)

WHITE (Herr S.) BLACK (Mr. H.)
1. P to K 4th P to K 4th
2. Kt to K B 3rd Kt to Q B 3rd
3. B to B 4th B to B 4th
4. Castles Kt to B 3rd
5. P to Q B 3rd Castles
6. P to Q 4th P takes P
7. P takes P B to Kt 3rd
8. P to K 5th P to Q 4th
9. P takes Kt
This line of play develops the various forces. It is better for both the players.
10. P to Q 5th P takes B
11. P takes P R to Kt 5th
12. Kt to B 3rd R to K sq
13. B to Kt 5th B to B 4th
14. Q to Q 2nd Kt to Q 5th
15. Kt to K R 4th B to Kt 5th
16. P to K R 3rd B takes R P
White's last move was an oversight. The superiority of Black's game at this point is very striking, and it is mainly owing to the first player's premature attack on the ninth move.
17. B to K 3rd
If—
17. P takes B Q to Kt 5th (ch), &c.
18. P takes B B takes B
19. Kt to B 5th B takes Kt
20. R takes B Q to K R 3rd
21. Q R to K B sq R to K 2nd
22. P to Q 6th
This device to bring the Kt into play is ingenious enough.
23. Kt to Q 5th Q takes P
24. Kt to B 6th (ch) K takes P
25. Q to B 3rd
White has the choice of several good moves, but the line of play adopted appears to be the most satisfactory.
26. Kt to K 4th Kt to Q 6th
27. R takes P (ch) K to Kt sq
28. Q takes Q P takes Q
29. R takes B P R to K B sq
30. R takes R (ch) K takes R
31. Kt to Q 2nd Kt to Kt 5th
32. P to K 4th R to Q B 3rd
33. R takes R P takes R
34. P to Kt 3rd K to K 2nd
35. K to K 2nd K to Q 3rd
36. K to B 4th P to K R 4th
37. K to B 4th K to B 4th
38. Kt to Kt 3rd (ch) K to Kt 5th
39. P to K 5th P to B 4th
40. P to K 6th P to B 5th
41. P to K 7th

It would have been better to have played the Kt to Q 2nd at once, after which Black would, in our judgment, have great difficulty in winning. The end game is very interesting.

CHESS IN AMERICA.

A dashing Skirmish that occurred recently in Atlanta (U.S.) between Mr. F. WURN and Mr. ORCHARD, a well-known Southern Amateur.

(Sicilian Defence.)

WHITE (Mr. W.) BLACK (Mr. O.)
1. P to K 4th P to Q 4th
2. P to Q 4th P takes P
3. Kt to K B 3rd P to K 3rd
4. Kt takes P P to B 4th
5. Kt to Kt 5th Kt to K B 3rd
6. P to K 5th Kt to K 5th
7. Kt to Q 6th (ch) Kt takes Kt
8. P takes Kt Q to Kt 3rd
9. Q to B 3rd Castles
10. Kt to B 3rd B takes P
11. B to Q 3rd B to Kt 5th
12. Castles B takes Kt
13. P takes B Kt to B 3rd
14. R to K sq
As it turns out, this ingenious sacrifice yields White a very strong attack.
14. Q takes R
WHITE (Mr. W.) BLACK (Mr. O.)
15. B to Kt 5th Q takes R P
We think Black's last move is a little better for his Queen.
16. B to B 6th P takes B
White's play is highly ingenious, but Black must be owned, seems somewhat doubtful.
17. Q takes P Q to Q 4th
18. Kt to K sq Q to K 4th
19. R to K 3rd Kt to K 2nd
20. Q takes Kt Q to R 3rd
21. R to Kt 3rd (ch) K to R sq
22. R to R 3rd Q to B 5th (ch)
23. B to B sq R to Kt sq
And White announced mate in four moves.

CHESS INTELLIGENCE.

A match between the Bermondsey and Shaftesbury Chess Clubs was played at the rooms of the latter on the 11th inst. Each club was represented by nine competitors, and the contest, which was a very close one, resulted in a victory for Bermondsey with a score of four to three and two drawn games.

WILLS AND BEQUESTS.

The will, dated Feb. 13, 1876, of Mr. Jacob Mocatta, late of No. 5, Norfolk-crescent, Hyde Park, who died on March 31 last, was proved on the 30th ult. by Benjamin Elkin Mocatta and Abraham De Mattos Mocatta, the sons, and Frederick David Mocatta, the brother, the executors, the personal estate being sworn under £250,000. The testator bequeaths to the West London Synagogue of British Jews, £500; to the Jews' Infant School, Commercial-street, Spitalfields, the Jews' Hospital at Lower Norwood, and to the Jewish Board of Guardians, Devonshire-square, £200 each; to the West Metropolitan Jews' School, Red Lion-square, the Jews' Free School, Bell-lane, Whitechapel, University College Hospital, the Cancer Hospital, Fulham-road, the Consumption Hospital, Brompton, the Hospital for Sick Children, Great Ormond-street, the Jews' Convalescent Home, Walton-on-Thames, and to the Jewish Deaf and Dumb Association, Norland House, Notting-hill, £100 each; to his wife, Mrs. Juliana Mocatta, £1500, his residence and stables, and all his furniture, plate, pictures, household effects, horses and carriages; to the trustees of the marriage settlement of his daughter, Mrs. Marion Helen Lousada, in addition to what is already thereby settled, £15,000; to each of his said sons, £25,000; and some other legacies. The income of the rest of his property he gives to his wife for life; and at her death a further sum of £25,000 (or one third of the residue, if less than that sum) upon trust for his said daughter; and the remainder of his estate equally between his said two sons.

The will and two codicils, dated respectively Feb. 28, and Oct. 12, 1872, and Sept. 24, 1874, of Mrs. Esther Bunning, late of No. 33, Holland Park, Bayswater, who died on the 14th ult. at the Hotel l'Amirauté, Rue Neuve, Saint Augustin, Paris, were proved on the 28th ult. by Edwin Bedford and Bryan Donkin, jun., the executors, the personal estate being sworn under £100,000. The testatrix bequeaths her two pictures by David Roberts, R.A., and her two pictures by Bossuet, to the nation, to be placed in such of the national picture-galleries as the Government for the time being may decide; to the Artists' Benevolent Institution, £500; to the National Benevolent Institution, the Governness's Benevolent Institution, the Asylum for Idiots, the Asylum for Fatherless Children, the Orphan Working School, Haverstock-hill, the National Hospital for the Paralyzed and Epileptic, Queen-square, Bloomsbury, the Royal Hospital for Incurables, St. Mary's Hospital, Cambridge-square, Paddington, the Nursing Sisters' Institution, Devonshire-square, and to two other hospitals to be chosen by her executors, £300 each; to the Royal Humane Society, £105. The testatrix also directs her executors to invest £5000, the interest and dividends on which are to accumulate until Herbert George Gaudet attains twenty-one, when the following bequests take effect—viz., to St. Bartholomew's Hospital, and to the Royal Free Hospital, Gray's-inn-lane, £1000 each; to the Royal National Hospital for Consumption, Ventnor, £600; to the Royal National Hospital or Sea-Bathing Infirmary, Margate, the Dover Convalescent Home, and to the Royal Normal College or Academy of Music for the Blind, Upper Norwood, £500 each; to the Association in Aid of the Deaf and Dumb, No. 272, Oxford-street, £300; and to the National Benevolent Institution, the Governnesses' Benevolent Institution, and the Royal Hospital for Incurables, £200 each; these three last in addition to the former legacies of £300 each. All the charitable legacies out of the said sum of £5000 are to be given in the name of the said Herbert George Gaudet as the donor; and if he should not live to attain the age of twenty-one years the whole fund, with the accumulations, is to be divided among the said charities in the same proportion as their legacies.

The will, with two codicils, dated Dec. 2, 1875, and Jan. 5 and Nov. 28, 1876, of Sir Bryan Edwards, formerly Chief Justice of Jamaica, who died at Eltham Penn, St. Catherine's, Jamaica, on Dec. 6 last, was proved in London on the 24th ult. by William Stephenson Bennett, the nephew, and Arthur Bryan Tugwell, the great-nephew, the acting executors, the personal estate being sworn under £40,000. The testator, after leaving several legacies, gives the residue of his personality in England as follows—viz., one sixth to the three daughters of his late nephew, the Rev. George Mackie, and the remainder equally between his nieces, Mrs. Anson, Mrs. Tugwell, Mrs. Dewes, and Mrs. Pennett, and his said nephew, W. S. Bennett; and he appoints his said nephew residuary legatee of his property in Jamaica.

The will, dated Sept. 18, 1866, of Sir Edward Baker Baker, Bart., late of Ramston Hall, Dorsetshire, who died on March 28 last, at No. 51, Upper Brook-street, Mayfair, was proved on the 20th ult. by William Robertson and Bendall Littlehales, the executors, the personal estate being sworn under £25,000. The testator devises his Farrington property at Shroton, Dorset, and gives the furniture, pictures, plate, farming stock, and effects at his house at Ramston to his brother, Talbot Hastings Bendall Baker, and there are several pecuniary legacies; the residue of his property he leaves to his three sisters, Miss Laura Isabella Baker, Mrs. Gertrude Laura Hutchings, and Mrs. Emilia Maria Goodlake.

The will, dated Feb. 13, 1875, of Mr. William Essex, late of Stanhope-street, Lincoln's-inn-fields, and of Gordon-street, Gordon-square, who died on March 23 last, was proved on the 23rd ult. by Alfred Essex, the son, and George Athelstane Thrupp, the executors, the personal estate being sworn under £45,000. The testator bequeaths to his wife £200 per annum in addition to her settlement, and makes provision for his three daughters and the widow and children of his deceased son William Edward. He appoints his son residuary legatee.

Last week three more ladies presented themselves for examination to the Irish College of Physicians; and, after passing through an ordeal extending over three days, they were admitted to the register of physicians of that college. One of these ladies—Dr. Louisa Atkins—has already been in practice in London; and the two others—Dr. Sophia Jex Blake and Dr. Edith Pechey—were amongst the earliest Edinburgh students. All three have taken degrees on the Continent.

A large meeting of shipbuilders in Glasgow took place yesterday week. It was unanimously resolved that, in consequence of the strike of the Clyde shipwrights for an advance of 15 per cent in their wages, there should be a general lock-out, to take effect on the 19th inst. This includes all the yards in Glasgow, Greenock, Port Glasgow, and Dumbarton; and thirty thousand men will be thrown idle. The masters have refused all contracts for two months.

The *Glasgow Herald* says that at a special meeting of the committee of the Theological Hall of the Congregational Churches held in Augustine church-room, Edinburgh, last week, it was unanimously resolved, on the motion of the Rev. W. S. Cox, Dundee, to appoint Dr. W. Lindsay Alexander to the chair of Systematic Theology and general superintendence of that institution. We learn that towards the endowment of this chair the munificent donation of £10,000 has been promised by Miss Baxter, of Ellengowan. The salary of the new professor will be £600 a year.

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THE ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS, MAY 23, 1877.



HIS MAJESTY ALEXANDER II., EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.

RUSSIA AND TURKEY.

It is a favourite story with a certain class of political doctrinaires that for all wars we are indebted to "kings and princes," and that a fraternal peace would reign if "the peoples" had their way. There was, no doubt, an age when the personal interest of a king, the ill-temper or caprice of a despotic prince, was all-sufficient to plunge a kingdom into bloodshed; but for more than a century past popular passion, national jealousies and race antipathies, have been the master forces precipitating war; and the mighty conflict of which we see the beginning to-day is the latest illustration of this historical truth. Despotic as is the government of the Czar, and (unless we take Midhat's Constitution to be a reality) equally so that of the Sultan, it is unquestionable that the struggle just opened has been the result of feelings which neither ruler was able altogether to control, certainly not to defy. During the past twelve months we have been hearing alternately that the war feeling in Russia was a help or a hindrance to the Czar; one day that it was promoted to order, the next that it was forcing the Emperor's hand. It may be safely assumed that the fatal turn which events have taken has been the result of no mere Court or Cabinet policy, nor yet of popular enthusiasm wholly antagonistic to the ruler's will, but of a combination of both. That the lines of Russian policy, independent of the Slav agitation, have tended in this direction is too notorious; but there is abundant evidence to the eye of the careful student of recent events that the current of popular feeling in Russia had recently left the Czar little choice but to accelerate his action in obedience to its force. South of the Danube a state of things very similar is seen. With or without the Midhat Parliament the Sultan would have been equally powerless to avert this war, on which Turkey rushes as if yielding to a resistless destiny. The revolution which swept Abdul Aziz from the throne; the ominous ease with which his next successor was put aside after a few weeks nominal rule; and, lastly, the startling *coup* by which the chief author of these great changes was himself struck down, all spoke the peril of the situation at Stamboul. In truth, at no time for some months past was it practicable for Sultan or Czar to avert a catastrophe. Long before the assembling of the Conference at Constantinople the opportunity for diplomacy had passed away.

It is proverbially easy to be wise after the event; but, even apart from the light which present occurrences cast upon the scene, one cannot compliment European statesmanship on its proceedings since May of last year. It is hard to understand how a surprise so great could have befallen, where indications so steadily pointed in the one direction. In the middle of last July a highly influential deputation waited on Lord Derby in reference to the Eastern Question, and to that deputation the Foreign Minister made a speech which, singularly enough, seems to have been almost forgotten by commentators on our Government policy, although its importance must be apparent to those who recall the circumstances. His Lordship reviewed the whole situation, and pointed out the absurdity of gloomy apprehensions. He took up, one by one, the several European States which might be regarded as interested in Eastern affairs, and demonstrated with almost mathematical precision that neither one of them could think of war. Russian finances, not to speak of other causes, bound the Czar to the Peace. Austria was already too much embarrassed by the endeavour to maintain the necessary equilibrium of races in her dual system. France was engaged in the great work of recovery and reconstruction, for which peace and tranquillity were absolutely essential. Italy had enough to do, financially and politically, at home. Germany and Great Britain were alike devoid of ambition, and alike averse to violent action. Nowhere did his Lordship see any ground for uneasiness or alarm.

Since no one will imagine the Foreign Secretary to have dealt otherwise than frankly with the July deputationists, it is nothing less than distressing just now to recall those assurances. If there is one man in the Cabinet on whose "long-headed" sagacity, prudence, and foresight the country has implicitly relied, it is Lord Derby. To most men who looked beneath the surface of things, the slow but steady and continuous march of events to their present position has been obvious enough ever since the rejection of the Berlin Memorandum by our Government. Were the Eastern Question a momentary quarrel, or a sudden complication between Cabinets, there might, indeed, be hazard and difficulty in forecast, so much would depend from day to day upon the decision of individual minds. But who does not recognise in it the culmination of that ever-growing, ever-formidable problem which has been Europe's constant trouble and greatest danger for half a century? Nothing that has occurred within the past fortnight should have been a surprise to genuine statesmanship. This war is not the work of rulers or courtiers; it is one of those tremendous collisions between nations in which race and religious antagonisms create a fierce momentum to which the haughtiest potentates have to yield.

A TOUR IN RUSSIA.

BY AN OLD RESIDENT.

If I were asked to describe Russia by a single epithet, I should say that it was flat. Flatness is by far the most prominent feature of the country which stretches from the Polar Ocean to the Black Sea and the Caspian. You may travel many thousand miles by road and rail in that region without ever going up a steep hill or passing through a tunnel. If you are fortunate enough to discover a hill or hillock and take the trouble of ascending it, you are pretty sure to find that the horizon on all sides is a straight line. Some of the rivers, it is true, have on the one side a high bank, and, as you look up at it from the deck of a steamer or small boat, you may be disposed to call it a low range of hills; but if you go to the top you will probably discover that you have been the victim of an optical delusion. What seemed a range of hills turns out to be simply the edge of a tableland stretching away far as the eye can reach, and the secluded little valley which you expected to see behind the summit has no existence in reality.

After flatness, the most prominent characteristic of Russian scenery is monotony. Russians often boast of the unexampled variety of scenery, climate, vegetation, and races which their country contains, and all they say on this point may be literally true. A land which stretches from the Arctic circle to the latitude of Rome cannot be monotonous to the eye of the geographer, botanist, zoologist, and ethnologist, when they sit in their study and survey the whole on a map. But it is not with such wide-seeing people that we have at present to do. The ordinary traveller who uses his own eyes and employs merely the ordinary means of locomotion cannot see more than a few square miles at a time, and cannot jump at a bound from Archangel to Tiflis. Even if he travels by express trains, at the rate of five-and-twenty miles an hour, he will probably after an hour or two begin to long for a newspaper or a novel; and, if he sums up his impressions at the end of the day's journey, he will find very little variety in them. The truth is that in order to get the impression of variety we must bring the various things together. It is of no use to be told that within the limits of the Empire there are ice-fields and luxuriant gardens, forests and prairies, reindeer and antelopes, cranberries and vines, fur-covered Samoyeds and swarthy Georgians, the stern grandeur of the Arctic regions and the soft beauty of the sunny south. We do not feel in travelling the variety which these words suggest. A hundred thousand people, when scattered over a large area, do not constitute a crowd.

On the whole, then, it may be said that Russia is not a country for tourists. Even when, in the course of time, it comes to be supplied with good roads, comfortable hotels, and all the other conveniences of civilised nomadic life, it will never be part of "the playground of Europe." Still, it ought not to be excluded entirely from the tourist world. If a route be chosen so as to include the most interesting parts and to omit as far as possible the regions in which flatness and monotony reign supreme, a summer vacation may be spent both pleasantly and profitably in the dominions of the Tsar. I propose now to make such a tour in the European part of the Empire; and, if the reader will kindly accompany me, I shall endeavour to fulfil the duties of guide and interpreter.

As very much depends upon first impressions, it will be well to avoid the dreary route by Brussels, Berlin, and Königsberg. A continuous journey of four days and three nights in railway carriages, with no bit of variety except the very unwelcome one of crossing the Channel, does not tend to make a man charitable in his judgments, and puts even abnormal good nature to a severe test. Besides this, the country to be traversed between the frontier and St. Petersburg, our first resting-place, seems dreary and desolate even to Russians. As we of course travel in summer, we had better brave the horrors of sea-sickness and go at least part of the way by sea. The sea route entails six days' imprisonment in a not very commodious screw-steamer; but that time can be agreeably diminished by crossing the southern part of Sweden by rail or canal-boat, and sailing from Stockholm to the coast of Russian Finland. As soon as we approach the land we can spend our time pleasantly in observing the strange forms of the bold, rocky coast; and, on arriving at Wiborg, we may leave the steamer and make an excursion to the Falls of Immatra, which, though not very lofty, are very picturesque and have a certain grandeur of their own.

We are now unquestionably in the Empire of the Tsar, but we have some difficulty in believing that we are in Russia, for we hear no Russian spoken around us. In the towns the common language is Swedish, and in the country the people commonly speak Finnish, a very euphonious language of the so-called Turanian family. We do not require to go much beyond the guide-book to discover that the institutions are as little Russian as the language. Having regularly read the newspapers since the outbreak of the Eastern Question, we know that Russia is behind the Ottoman Empire in having no Parliamentary institutions; but Finland has evidently already had its Midhat Pasha, for it possesses both a Parliament and a Constitution. And a very curious Parliament it is, consisting of no less than four Chambers, each of which is composed of deputies from one of the four officially recognised social classes—the Nobles, the Clergy, the Burghers, and the Peasantry. For ordinary affairs the consent of three of the Chambers is sufficient; but in all matters relating to the fundamental laws, the rights of the various classes, and the raising of new taxes, all the four Chambers must agree. All this is very non-Russian, and shows plainly that Finland, though officially a Russian province, is not a part of Russia in the ordinary sense of the term. What is it, then? Here comes our old Russian friend Ivan Petrovich, who has been long settled in Wiborg. Perhaps he will explain to us the anomaly.

Ivan Petrovich, though long resident in Finland, has not been at all contaminated by local influence. If the surrounding Finno-Swedish atmosphere has had any influence on him, it has been to develop his inborn Russian patriotism. All that

is peculiar in Finland he feels to be a grievance, and he is ever ready to ventilate his grievances when he can find an attentive listener. Meeting foreigners in search of information, he at once launches into his subject. He reminds us that Finland was long a Swedish province, and that the towns are still thoroughly saturated with the Swedish spirit. In 1809 it was conquered by Russia, and soon afterwards formally annexed to the Empire; but the Emperor of that time, Alexander I., did not act in the way that Ivan Petrovich would have recommended. Instead of sweeping away the existing institutions and putting genuine Russian institutions in their stead, his Majesty endeavoured to preserve as far as possible what actually existed, and adopted the title of Grand Prince of Finland. Hence arose all the anomalies of which Ivan Petrovich complains. Finland, he says, enjoys many privileges which it ought not to possess and escapes many burdens which it ought to bear, and, consequently, its inhabitants form a kind of privileged class in the Empire. Though they enjoy all the protection afforded to Russian subjects, both at home and abroad, they do not contribute to the expenses of diplomatic and consular agents, and, until quite recently, gave only one battalion to the army instead of 30,000 men, as they ought to have done. They have their own coinage, their own post office, their own national bank, and their own custom-houses, which do not admit many kinds of Russian goods. Above all, they treat Russians who live amongst them not as masters, or even fellow-countrymen, but as foreigners. On this last point Ivan Petrovich waxes pathetic, and condemns in the strongest terms the sentimental generosity of Alexander I. and his successors. In his words there is, amidst a good deal of patriotic fanaticism, a certain amount of truth. During the first quarter of the present century the Government did show a certain partiality to its non-Russian subjects. It not only preserved the institutions of Finland and the Baltic Provinces, but gave a kind of constitution to the Poles, and accorded many valuable privileges to foreign colonists from Germany and other foreign countries. These measures were based on apparently sound considerations of State policy, but they were none the less galling to the self-respect of genuine Russians. The Russian found himself less privileged than foreigners in his own country! And in many respects the system did not produce the desired result. The Swedes in Finland and the Germans in the Baltic provinces became more and more exclusive, and resolutely resisted all Russifying influence; expressing, often in a very inconsiderate way, their want of respect and admiration for the Russian character and institutions. The foreign colonists exercised little or no civilising influence on the surrounding peasantry, and remained foreigners even in the third and fourth generation; whilst the Poles did all in their power to transform their local autonomy into political independence, and to bring about the dismemberment of the empire. In consequence of these unpleasant facts the Government has in recent years reversed its policy, and now strives to assimilate all heterogeneous elements. Of course, this attempt at assimilation, or "Russification," as it is termed, produces obstinate resistance. Finlanders, Poles, and Germans feel that they are more civilised than Russians, and consider Russification to be what an ingenious Irishman once termed "retrograde progression." And, unfortunately, in this work of assimilation the religious element comes into play. In Russia, religion and nationality are so intimately interwoven, both in the minds of the people and in many of the forms of daily life, that they are practically almost identical. However we may explain this curious circumstance, the fact is undeniable. A man may be born in Russia and be educated in Russian schools, he may be a loyal subject of the Tsar and occupy a high position in the public service, but he will never be a genuine Russian in the full sense of the term if he remains a Protestant or a Roman Catholic. Pure Russian nationality is only to be found in conjunction with Greek Orthodoxy; and, accordingly, the Government would very much like to see all its heretical and schismatic subjects enter the pale of the official Church. How far it endeavours to drive them in is a question which is at present attracting considerable attention, and the reader may naturally desire to know how far the current accusations are well founded. It is, however, by no means easy to arrive at the truth. When a Consular agent like Colonel Mansfield relates what he has seen with his own eyes, we may regard the fact as duly proved; but when he relates from hearsay what is said to have taken place at a considerable distance, his testimony must be accepted with extreme caution. In Poland especially this caution requires to be exercised. Anyone who has come much in contact with Poles must be aware that whenever their patriotic feelings and their hatred of the Muscovite come into play their statements are not remarkable for accurate truthfulness. Whatever may be the truth in this particular case, certain it is that the persecuting tendencies of the Russian Government are in general greatly exaggerated. So long as Russians, or foreigners resident in Russia, adhere nominally to the faith in which they were born, and allow others to do likewise, they enjoy the most complete religious liberty. The Greek Orthodox, the Roman Catholic, the Protestant, and the Mussulman enjoy equally the protection of the State, and are free to worship God after the manner of their forefathers. But they are not all equally free to make converts. A distinction is made between converts and perverts. A Roman Catholic or Protestant may pass over to the Greek Orthodox Church, but a member of the national Church may not become a Roman Catholic or Protestant. Though the Government is, under ordinary circumstances, strongly tinged with religious indifferentism, and makes no strenuous efforts to convert unbelievers, it does not allow the official fold to be diminished. Of course this is a very serious infringement on complete liberty of conscience; but, as comparatively few people desire openly to change their religion, it has not so much practical significance as might be supposed. Still, it is a blot, and a very serious blot, on Russian legislation; and it is to be hoped that the present Emperor, who has accomplished so many beneficent reforms, will see fit to remove this remnant

of old religious intolerance. To protect orthodoxy by the criminal code indicates surely a strange want of faith in the inherent excellency and power of Mother Church.

But we have inadvertently wandered a long way from Wiborg. Let us return at once and get on board the steamer again. Perhaps at some future time we may hear the end of our friend Ivan Petrovich's oration. He is anxious to justify to benighted foreigners the policy of Russification, and can make a very plausible argument by showing that the so-called Finlanders, the dominant class, are not Finns at all, but Swedish intruders, and that the Russians, in opposing them, are defending the rights and liberties of the aborigines. Unfortunately, we have no time to listen to his ingenious defence; for the third bell has been rung, and we must bid him a hurried good-by.

The first object of interest which we see from the steamer is Cronstadt—a name very familiar to English ears. From the distance it seems an insignificant island, but it is in reality one of the strongest fortresses in the world. So, at least, Russians say, and I am not in a position to contradict them. Certainly, it kept at bay during the Crimean War a great British fleet, and since that time it has been immensely strengthened; so that now, if report speaks true, it could defend St. Petersburg against all the ironclads in the world. Shortly after passing it, we discover on the southern shore of the gulf two Imperial palaces, imbedded in trees—Peterhof and Strelna; and soon afterwards we notice, right ahead near the horizon, a peculiar quivering light which looks like a great yellow meteor. An ingenious passenger, who is always on the lookout for the marvellous, assumes that it is a gigantic lighthouse constructed on a new principle; but his better-informed companion assures him that it is merely the sun's rays reflected on the burnished dome of St. Isaac's Cathedral, the biggest church in St. Petersburg.

It may be stated as a general rule that Russian, like Oriental, cities look very grand and beautiful from a distance, but lose very much of their grandeur and beauty by closer inspection. St. Petersburg exemplifies only the first half of this rule. Seen from a distance, it is grand and beautiful; but, unlike the great majority of Russian towns, it does not lose its grandeur and beauty when you enter it—at least if you enter it by steamer. The deep, rapid river, on which skim perpetually swift steam-launches and small rowing-boats—the far-stretching quays of massive masonry, half concealed behind barges and steamers—the big, solid houses lining the quays on either side—the long, elegant stone bridge with iron parapet, behind which is seen the Academy of Arts, the Fortress, and the Winter Palace—the gilded domes of the churches rising above the whole and glittering red in the rays of the setting sun,—all this forms a picture of which the Petersburgians are justly proud. And the impression produced by this scene is not by any means dispelled by entering into the heart of the city. Here and there we may experience a sensation of bareness, and occasionally we may be reminded of "the city of magnificent distances;" but this is probably because we are unaccustomed to cities laid out by an autocratic architect on land of no value. On the whole, the city is grandiose in style and proportion. The streets are for the most part wide and straight, and run at right angles to each other, but they are by no means so mathematically and painfully regular as those of Mannheim or Karlsruhe. They always start with the intention of going in a perfectly straight line, and this intention never encounters any opposition from elevations or depressions; but occasionally, when they meet with one of the numerous meandering canals, they forget for a moment their rigid principles and become flexible. The size of the houses, many of which contain a score of independent apartments, is in keeping with the length and breadth of the streets, and the squares, palaces, theatres, and churches are on the same colossal scale. The Nefski Prospect—which is a kind of Regent-street, Piccadilly, and Oxford-street rolled into one—is certainly one of the finest streets in the world.

In our character of tourists we naturally "do the sights." They are, fortunately, not very numerous. First we may visit the Hermitage, which contains a second-rate collection of Italian and Spanish paintings and a first-rate collection of the old Dutch masters. Then we may look into one or two collections of modern Russian pictures, showing very tolerable work, but nothing of striking originality. If we care to see big halls and rich modern upholstery, we may walk through the Winter Palace; and, if our tastes be literary, we may spend an hour or two in the Imperial Public Library, which contains, among other curiosities, the library of Voltaire. The interior of the great cathedral and the other churches must be seen, but we shall find there nothing to detain us long. Indeed, the whole work of sight-seeing may be got through in a single day, and in the cool of the evening we can spend an hour or two in driving about the islands or gazing at the sunset from "the Point" a favourite rendezvous for those who are compelled to spend the summer on the banks of the Neva. We commonly associate St. Petersburg with ideas of snow and ice, costly furs and warm sheepskins; but in reality its inhabitants suffer quite as much from heat as from cold. During the long winter the ground is always covered with snow, the thermometer sinks occasionally to 30 deg. below zero, and, when a cutting east wind blows, the noses and ears of foreigners and natives alike are in danger of being frostbitten. Then every house must have double windows and double doors, and every room must be heated with hot air or by an enormous stove. When you open a pane in the double windows, the cold air rushes into the room in the form of steam, and makes you modify your English ideas about the necessity of frequently airing an apartment. When you go out to walk or drive you must put on a long, high-collared fur coat, and cumbersome galochees to protect the feet. You perhaps feel inclined to have a run to get up the circulation; but, if the weather is very cold and bright, you had better check that impulse and content yourself with simply drawing your fur cloak closer around you, for any violent exertion in the very cold, bright

days leads almost instantaneously to loss of breath, precisely as on the top of a high mountain. The lungs, it would seem, can bear only a certain amount of very cold atmosphere, and, unlike over-zealous, unconscientious tradespeople, they refuse to undertake more work than they can perform. You imagine perhaps, that you will indemnify yourself for all these discomforts by an unlimited amount of skating; but in this you will probably be disappointed. The Russians are not a skating people. Snow falls almost as soon as the rivers and lakes are covered with ice, so that any long journey on skates is impossible. Once I succeeded, at considerable risk, in having a run of fifty miles on the Volkhof—the river which connects Lake Ilmen with Lake Ladoga—and the excursion was regarded by the natives as a wonderful feat! The more sceptical among them declared the story to be a myth, for such a thing had never been heard of. In St. Petersburg, indeed, you may have much more skating than one ever dreams of in England. There the English colony started many years ago a skating club, and now the Russians have learned to make skating rinks; but the amusement has never become very popular among the natives, and St. Petersburg is, so far as I am aware, the only town in the Empire where good rinks are to be found. And even here in the very cold weather skating cannot be had, for when the thermometer falls, to a certain extent (about—15 deg. Réaumur), the ice becomes hard as glass, and the skates, however sharp, will not bite. During the festivities which took place at the time of the Duke of Edinburgh's marriage fears were entertained that the skating fête prepared by the English colony might be prevented in this way; nature, however, showed herself more propitious than was expected, and the fête proved one of the most brilliant ever given on the Neva. Many people prefer the excitement of the ice-hills, or *Montagnes russes*, as they are called, to the tamer pleasures of the skating rink. If made sufficiently high and steep, these "hills" enable one to enjoy all the pleasure which can be derived from being pitched out of a high window, without the absolute certainty of breaking one's neck. Men of sporting tendencies can have a still more exciting kind of amusement in the form of a bear-hunt. It must, however, be admitted that bear-hunting is not quite such an heroic amusement as the name seems to indicate. There are, indeed, in some of the outlying provinces—so, at least, I have been assured, but I cannot speak from observation—a few peasants who may fairly be called "mighty hunters," men who can go out alone into the forest and face old Bruin with nothing more deadly in their hands than a heavy wooden club and a long knife. Report says that somewhere in the Ural there is even a woman who regularly seeks such dangerous encounters, and always succeeds in bagging the game. But that is not the kind of bear-hunting which is practised by the amateur sportsmen of St. Petersburg. Since none of these gentlemen are present, I may tell you, gentle reader, in strict confidence, that the bear is always *bought* before it is shot. When peasants discover one of the shaggy fraternity enjoying his winter siesta, their first care is to find a purchaser, and for this purpose they send a deputy to some member of the sporting world in the city. A bargain is made (the sum depending on the distance of the lair from a railway station), and on the appointed day a party of sportsmen, armed with rifles, proceed to the spot. The beaters then go into the forest and endeavour, by howling and yelling, to rouse the bear and drive him to the point where the sportsmen are waiting to receive him. If the affair has been well arranged he has little chance of escape. Being of a naturally pacific disposition, he tries to get away from his howling persecutors, and runs unsuspectingly "into the jaws of death." Thus, you see, gentle reader, amateur bear-shooting is not a very dangerous amusement. Still, if you have had no experience of the kind, you will do well to be cautious. Though your contract with the peasant may have been made in due form, remember that the bear has not signed it, and consequently does not consider himself bound to act as he is desired. He will make off if he possibly can; but, if he cannot, he may show in a very disagreeable way his instinct of self-preservation and his means of self-defence. I have known several men who were mauled, and one good sportsman who was scalped, by bears' claws. The rule you have to follow is—either make a good hit or a good miss. In the one case you disable your enemy, and in the other you enable him to escape. If you adopt a middle course and wound him, look out for your scalp! Before you have time to think of a second shot you may find yourself in the savage brute's embrace. Perhaps you may be released by a well-aimed, well-timed shot from one of your companions; otherwise your plight will be miserable indeed. Your quality of British subject, and all the real and imaginary protection of the Foreign Office on which you are wont to rely, will be of little service to you in that dread moment; for Bruin does his work swiftly, effectually, and without diplomatic formalities, and is no respecter of persons. The Autocrat of All the Russias himself, in his own dominions, had a few years ago a very narrow escape of the kind. But for the timely aid of the two spear-men who always accompany his Majesty on such occasions, the bear would have caused some alterations to be made in the *Almanach de Gotha*, and have exercised a considerable and lasting influence on European History!

There is something at once solemnising and ridiculous in the thought that a humble quadruped, belonging to a family whose name has never been mentioned in connection with the suffrage, should be able—or almost able—in a moment of blind rage to modify the destinies of a great empire! Yet so it is. In England bears might swallow half a dozen Sovereigns, and even two or three Prime Ministers, without materially modifying the policy of the country; but in Russia the case is quite different. There the Sovereign can do as he or she pleases, and the Imperial decision may be determined by a very insignificant item in the chapter of accidents. There is a capital illustration of this in the anecdotes told of the Empress Elizabeth. She was about to sign a very important treaty, which would have compelled her to declare war, when an

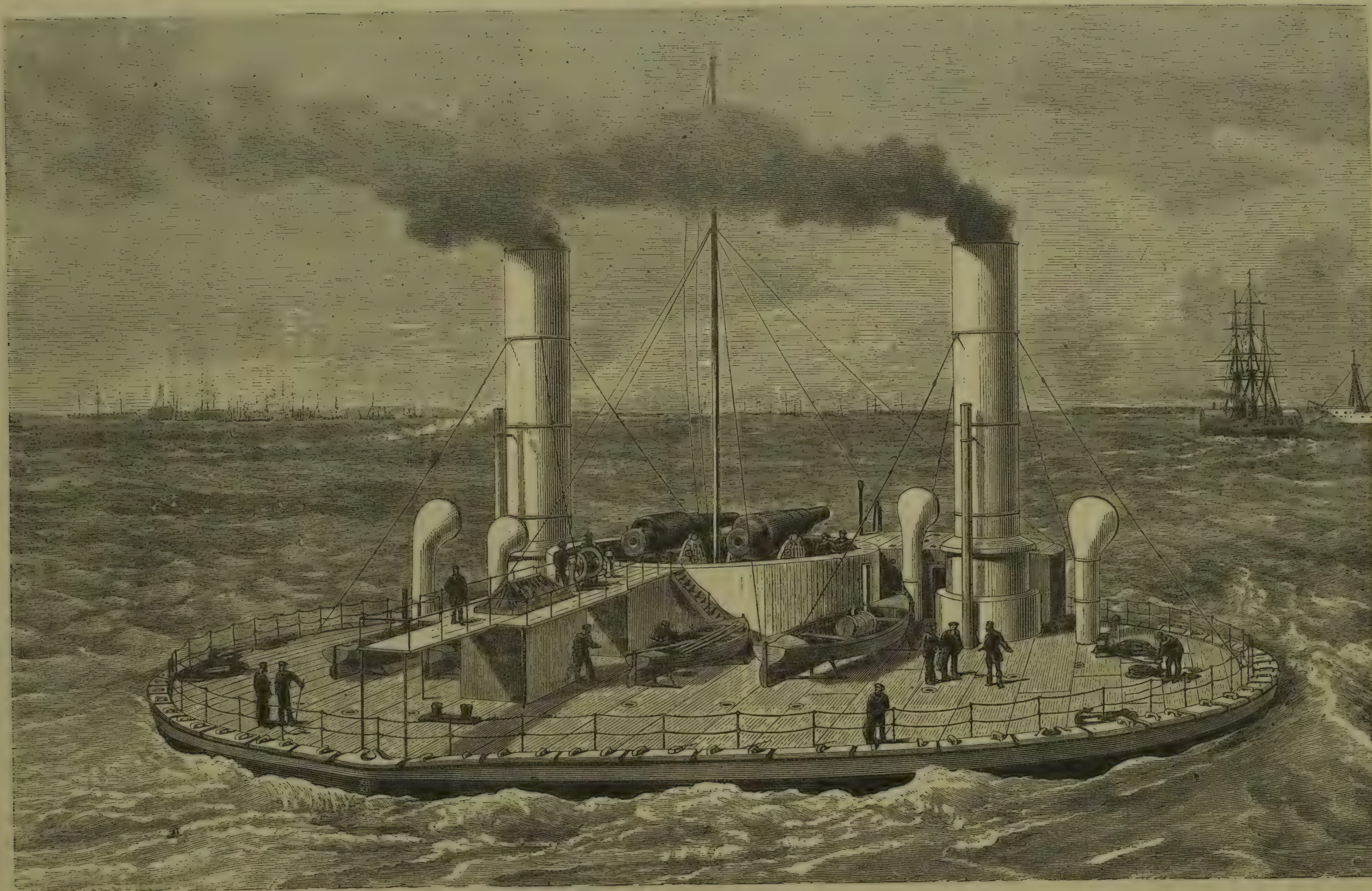
indiscreet fly, regardless of the divinity that doth hedge an Empress, alighted near her pen and made a blot. The incident seemed to her Majesty an evil omen, and made such an impression upon her that she laid the paper aside and never finished her signature. Thus a common little fly, with no more intellectual ability than is required to make a blot, had more political influence than the sixteen millions of inhabitants which at that time formed the population of the Empire! *Se non e vero, e ben trovato.*

We have recently heard a good deal about the popular pressure to which the Tsar is supposed to yield; and some Russians even go as far as to assert that his Majesty never does anything contrary to the popular will. "Our Government," say these, "though autocratic in form, is in reality representative. Though we have no Parliament, we have other means of expressing our wishes, and the Emperor cannot disregard them." Certain Russians love to speak in this tone to foreigners; but they would never think of doing so to their own countrymen. If they really believe what they say, then it is a case of the wish being father to the thought. The Emperor is himself a Russian, and consequently to some extent under the same influences as his people; but he is quite capable of having an independent opinion or of adopting the opinions of a small minority, as he has done in the question of classical versus scientific education, and no amount of popular clamour can in such a case shake his determination. But is he not, ask certain other people, forced to yield to pressure of another kind? The whole country, say these, is undermined by revolutionary propaganda. The Tsar sits, as it were, on a volcano, and is obliged to let out from time to time a little of the explosive material, lest he and his whole family should be blown into the air. At the present moment, for instance, he has to adopt the Napoleonic ruse of making war, so that the attention of his more patriotic than loyal subjects should be withdrawn from home affairs. All this is utterly false. There does exist a certain revolutionary propaganda, which causes the Government a great deal of unnecessary trouble, but it has not the slightest chance of overthrowing the existing order of things any more than Fenianism has a chance of breaking up the British Empire. The great mass of the nation are devotedly and unreservedly attached to the reigning dynasty, and would strongly disapprove of anything which tended to limit the autocratic power. Not only the revolutionary tendencies, but even the legitimate constitutional aspirations are confined to a very small minority of the people, and whatever the Tsar commands is certain to meet with no serious resistance.

But to return. I was saying that the Petersburgians have to suffer as much from heat as from cold. Though the winter is long and dreary, it does not last all the year round. Some time in April or the beginning of May the warm weather comes. The snow melts, leaving oceans of slush in the streets, the sledges are replaced by wheeled vehicles, the ice on the river begins to move, the steamers and sailing craft which have been imprisoned for six months prepare for work, and the sun sends down a flood of heat, as if anxious to make up for lost time. Soon the grass, the shrubs, and the trees show signs of reviving, and in the space of a few days the bare branches and twigs cover themselves with the fresh, bright foliage of spring. This is the most delightful time of year in Northern Russia. Unfortunately, it is as short as delightful. Ere a few weeks have passed, the sunshine that was so pleasant after the long black winter, becomes oppressive. The bright verdure of the foliage becomes sickly grey, the air becomes heavy, the odours that glide about the streets remind one that the drainage of the city is far from perfect, the pleasant houses that one frequented during the winter months are one after another shut up, the accustomed faces are no longer met with in the streets, and those who are obliged to remain in the city feel like the poor orphan school-boy who does not go home for the holidays. Among the upper classes there are few such unfortunates. Those who cannot go to estates in the country or make a foreign tour find for the most part summer quarters in the islands, or at Tsarskoe Selo, Pavlofsk, Strelna, Peterhof, or some other place in the immediate neighbourhood. Then come the long, long midsummer days, when the night brings neither darkness nor coolness. How different from the ordinary conception of St. Petersburg—the city of ice and snow! All extremes of temperature are objectionable, but in St. Petersburg, where everything is arranged for winter, extreme heat is much more disagreeable than extreme cold. Let us, then, tarry no longer. We have "done the sights" as conscientiously as can be expected from a British tourist, so we may join the south-eastward exodus and pay a flying visit to Moscow.

The railway by which we travel is one of the oldest in the country, and was constructed under the personal supervision of the Emperor Nicholas. That explains the massive style of construction. Nicholas was a man who loved to do everything in the grand style, and was not in the habit of accurately counting the cost. The Moscow Railway reflects his character truly in this respect. It runs almost in a straight line, because the Tsar so ordered it, and the principal stations are built in a massive—one might almost say a grandiose—style. At each of these the train stops long enough to enable the passengers to dine or sup copiously—an arrangement that necessarily causes considerable delay, but has some corresponding advantages. The whole distance is about 400 miles—very nearly the same as that between London and Edinburgh—and the journey is made by express-train in about fifteen hours. This will seem slow travelling to those who are accustomed to the Flying Scotchman and the Wild Irishman, but it must in fairness be added that accidents on this line are very much less frequent than on the principal English Railways. If Russian locomotives do not go so fast as English ones, they may at least plead in their defence that they are less addicted to running off the rails and dashing into goods-trains.

The tourist's first impressions of Moscow do not prepossess him favourably. The railway station is in the outskirts of the town, and the streets which lead to the central quarter are



THE RUSSIAN CIRCULAR IRONCLAD SHIP, ADMIRAL POPOFF, FOR THE BLACK SEA COAST DEFENCES.



THE TURKISH IRONCLAD FRIGATE HAMIDIEH (FORMERLY NAMED THE MEMDOUHIYEH).

narrow, winding, dirty, and execrably paved. The jerks and jolting would certainly prove too much for the springs of any English carriage, and try severely the traveller's muscles, sinews, and good-nature. But when he reaches the central part, if he have aught of the picturesque and antiquarian instincts in him, he will immediately forget any little personal inconveniences. There before him rises the Kremlin in all its quaint originality. He gazes with wonder, not unmixed with admiration, at the high stone walls, the curious old towers, the venerable Cathedral with its gilded cupolas, and the grotesque Church of St. Basil, one of the most fantastic architectural conceptions that ever issued from human brain. And when he examines the details he finds most interesting objects that recall every period of Russian history. There are still remains of the time when Moscow was but one among many independent Principalities, and not always even *primus inter pares*—when all "the Russian land," and Moscow as part of it, paid tribute to the Tartar Khan. Much more numerous are the remains of the period when the ancient city had risen high above her rivals, had thrown off the Tartar yoke, and had combined all the independent Principalities into the Tsardom of Muscovy. That was the period when Ivan III. ordered an Italian architect to construct the fantastic Church of St. Basil—when Ivan IV., surnamed the Terrible, broke the power of the proud old Muscovite aristocracy and quenched the republican spirit of Novgorod in the blood of 80,000 of its inhabitants—when the Poles and Cossacks overran the country, and ruthlessly pillaged, murdered, and desecrated in a way that Bashi-Bazouks might have been proud of—when the mild, pious Alexis invited to his dominions all manner of cunning foreign artificers and soldiers skilled in the art of war, thereby paving the way for his energetic son, who was afterwards to be known as Peter the Great. Peter loved not the conservative Muscovites, and the conservative Muscovites loved him not. In order to carry out his vast reforms he was obliged to build a new capital and to transport thither the seat of Government; but Moscow retained, and still retains, the first place in the hearts of the Russian people; and once, at least, in modern times she has shown herself worthy of that affection. When, in 1812, Napoleon invaded the country, and fondly imagined that from the Kremlin he could dictate his own terms of peace, she forgot all selfish interests and nobly sacrificed herself on the altar of the Fatherland.

Moscow and St. Petersburg represent in a very graphic way the two great periods of Russian history. The old capital has a look of antiquity and irregularity which show that, like the famous Topsy, it "grewed;" whilst the new capital is regularly built, and bears everywhere traces of having been constructed according to a clearly-conceived plan. Russian history before Peter the Great closely resembles Moscow. Down to the time of the Great Reformer the country had a natural spontaneous life, struggling with difficulties as they arose and solving them more or less successfully by its own traditional wisdom. If the old Muscovite Tsars had any grand definite policy, it was to extend their dominions as rapidly as possible, and to retain all political power in their own hands. They had no idea of civilising their subjects or of constructing a symmetrical Administration according to the principles of political science. They were not averse to having in their service a few foreigners who knew something of architecture, artillery, and other useful arts; but they did not go much further in that direction, and even that little was very distasteful to their subjects. The ordinary Russian of that day regarded everything foreign as heretical and dangerous to salvation. He did not object to hard drinking, because that was a good old national institution, sanctified by immemorial custom; but he was very much scandalised by the sight of a tobacco pipe, because smoking was a foreign invention patronised by Papists and Protestants. And in this, as in all similar matters, he could give a reason for the faith that was in him. The distinction between intoxicating *vodka* and the fragrant weed was founded on no less authority than Holy Writ, for it is not written that a man is defiled, not by that which entereth into him—i.e., *vodka*—but by that which cometh out of his mouth—i.e., tobacco smoke. Whether they had equally good authority for the other parts of their conservative creed I know not, but I do know that they stuck with great tenacity to their time-honoured customs and beliefs, and sometimes showed themselves ready to die rather than depart from what had been observed by their forefathers. Among such people it required a very strong and a very bold man to introduce even moderate reforms, and any ordinary mortal, though strong and bold as his fellows, would have considered it simple madness to attempt any sweeping changes in the social or political life. But Peter was not an ordinary mortal. He had that impetuous rashness and that reckless contempt for opposition which drive their possessor either to destruction or to a high place among historical personages. Having travelled in foreign countries, he had been charmed by the results of Western civilisation, and determined to introduce it into his own country, however unpalatable it might be to his people and their priests. The scheme was a daring—we might almost say mad—one, and certainly could be justified by nothing but success; but it had that best of justifications. Not that all Peter's schemes turned out successful. Far from it. Very many of his plans utterly broke down, and even those which had a better fate did not produce nearly all the beneficial results which he anticipated. But he did succeed in breaking with the past and putting his country on a new road. Russia was no longer allowed to "grow" after its own fashion. Its institutions were remodelled according to the political wisdom of Germany, Holland, Denmark, and France, and the upper classes were compelled to adopt the dress, and in a lesser degree the ideas, of Western Europe. The conservative tendencies of the nobles were extracted partly by the new schools and partly the old *knout*, whilst the priests, monks, and ecclesiastical dignitaries were kept in order by the civil power. In short, the Tsardom of Muscovy, with its ancient venerable capital on the Moskva, was transformed into the Empire of Russia with a brand-new capital on the Neva. Up till

that time Muscovy had been considered an Asiatic Principality, and the Tsars had been regarded by the Christian Potentates of Europe pretty much as the petty princes of Central Asia are regarded by us at the present day; from that time onwards Russia was to be one of the European Powers, and her Imperial rulers were to have a hand in all the great congresses, conferences, and other ingenious expedients by which short-sighted, feeble-handed Diplomacy endeavours to preserve the public peace.

The rapidity with which Russia has grown during these two hundred years is certainly amazing. In 1682 her geographical area was about 5,600,000 English square miles; in 1867 it was about 7,535,000. The increase in her population is even more astounding. Between 1722 and 1857—that is to say, in less than a century and a half—it has risen from 14,000,000 to 74,000,000! We may perhaps console ourselves with the thought that our own territory and population have grown with at least equal rapidity. If we include our colonies and dependencies, we may say that Russia is still small as compared with the British Empire. British India alone has more than double the population of all Russia! But in this comparison there is one important point which must not be overlooked. Our empire is sporadically scattered over the globe, and many parts of it are linked together by a band that may snap at any moment. Our colonies are really independent States which contribute little to the political power of the mother country; and some of them are even adopting protective tariffs for the purpose of excluding our manufactures and creating industries of their own. We cannot impose upon them any policy that does not suit their convenience; and even the nominal supremacy which we exercise over them will probably—at least in the case of several of them—not be of very long duration. Russia, on the other hand, is a compact territory with a highly-centralised administration. What the Czar commands becomes law, not only in the vicinity of St. Petersburg and Moscow, but in every part of the Empire, from the German to the Chinese frontier, and from the Polar Ocean to the northern slopes of the Himalayas. Within that vast area he can do as he pleases, and no one dares to oppose his will. Political prophets, who found their predictions on materials invisible to ordinary eyes and unintelligible to the ordinary understanding, sometimes declare confidently that the great Colossus must soon fall to pieces. For my own part, I cannot lay claim to the gift of prophecy, political or other; but I must say I cannot discover any symptoms of this expected disruption. I have travelled in many of the outlying provinces and conversed with many of the inhabitants who are Russian subjects without being Russians in the ethnographical sense, and I have never discovered anything that seemed likely to grow into local political independence. Nowhere have I found what a German might call a healthy, vigorous "separatismus." The Russian who lives long in an outlying province may adopt some of the manners and customs of the natives, but his political instincts and sympathies remain unchanged. The idea of dismembering the empire probably never entered his mind, and if it is suggested to him it will sound in his ears almost as blasphemy. I have been told by an Englishman who travelled in Siberia, and who has, I believe, since published his observations, that he had found there the germs of a separate nationality. In Siberia, he said, a considerable part of the educated population is composed of Polish exiles and their descendants, who are neither Poles nor Russians, but Siberians. As the gentleman in question is an acute and conscientious observer, I do not venture to call his statements in question, but I cannot accept the conclusion that these Siberians are likely to found a separate nationality and acquire political independence. These men of Polish extraction form but a very small section of the people, and their numbers are not increasing nearly as rapidly as the purely Russian population. All Siberians have, it is true, certain slight peculiarities of character and manners which distinguish them from the ordinary Russian, but they are, so far as I have been able to observe, thoroughly Russian in feeling and sympathies. Indeed, it is often said by people competent to judge that, if you wish to find a genuine Russian, you must go to Siberia. There, it is said, you will still find the genuine Muscovite of the old type, uncontaminated by modern life and foreign influence. Say to such a man anything inconsistent with an unbounded, unquestioning devotion to "Papa Tsar," and you will see what effect it will produce on him—or rather, you had better not make the experiment, for in all probability he would consider it his duty to hand you over to the authorities. If Siberia has thus remained thoroughly Russian when communications were difficult, it will surely not become less so when the railway which is at present in course of construction has been completed. Everywhere in European Russia the railways are rapidly destroying the little local life that formerly existed, and the telegraphs have diminished the little independence which the local administration formerly enjoyed.

If we visit the Ethnographical Museum, which is one of the most interesting sights of Moscow, we may feel inclined for a moment to look favourably on the predictions of Russian dismemberment. We find there an immense collection of lay-figures, representing all the nationalities which profess allegiance to the Tsar. "And, truth to tell, it is a motley company!" There is the Samoyed, covered with reindeer skin from head to foot, and a hideous group of Fire-Worshippers from Bakou, wearing only a minimum of clothing—the squat, stunted Buriat, and the tall, stalwart Cossack—the uncouth, timid Tchuvash, and the agile, fierce Circassian—Tcheremiss and Votiaks, Bashkirs and Kirghis, Tartars and Kalmucks, Poles and Germans, Georgians and Jews, Persians and Lesgians. Turning to the religious statistics, we find an almost equally great variety—Greek-Orthodox, sectarians of every denomination, Gregorians, Roman Catholics, Protestants, Jews, Mohammedans, Idolaters! Surely, in a nation which comprises so many races and so many religions, there must be many dangerous elements of discord and disruption. No doubt there are; but the danger is not nearly so great as at first sight

appears. Though there are many races, the Russians compose four fifths of the population. The Finns show the respectable number of more than four millions and a half, but they have no nationality, in the political sense. The word includes a dozen tribes, which have no common language, no recollection of political unity, no special bond of sympathy with each other, and which are being rapidly Russianised. The Jews amount to nearly two millions and a half; but in Russia, as elsewhere, the children of Israel have no separatist political aspirations. The only nationality likely to cause the Russians any serious trouble is the Poles, and they have very little chance of ever regaining their political independence, which would be a thorn in the side not only of Russia but also of Germany and Austria. The Baltic Provinces are sometimes supposed to have a better chance. The inhabitants, it is said, are Germans; and though they have little power of their own, they may, perhaps, induce Bismarck, or one of his successors, to espouse their cause and unite them with the German Fatherland, from which they have been so long separated. To those who speak in this way it must be admitted that everything is possible; but it must be added that there are probable things and improbable things, and that the annexation of the Baltic Provinces by Germany belongs decidedly to the improbable. The majority of the population are not German but Finnish. The nobles and the commercial classes are alone German, and they cannot reasonably desire annexation to Germany, for they would thereby lose the important advantages afforded them by their present anomalous position. The nobles supply a very large proportion of the Russian "generals," civil and military, and play a far more important part than they could possibly play in the German Empire. In like manner the commercial classes would greatly suffer by annexation, for the commercial importance of the provinces would be immensely diminished if they ceased to be Russian.

In a country with so many nationalities you naturally expect to find an endless variety of curious primitive industries, and you think with pleasure of the neat, original objects that you will take home as presents to your friends and relations. Perhaps you even dream of making a little Russian museum in your library, and are impatient to go to the bazaars. Let us go thither by all means. The bazaar is in the "Chinese Town," close to the Kremlin, so that on our way we can have another look at those picturesque old walls and fantastic towers. But don't expect to find many curiosities for your museum, or you will inevitably be disappointed. Neither the Russians nor the various tribes which they have annexed are very remarkable for mechanical ingenuity or refined natural taste. In many parts of the country there are peculiar local industries; but of the articles produced very many—such as big boxes, tubs, stoneware jars, and wooden sledges—cannot be conveniently stowed away in a portmanteau; and others—such as nails, tar, and tallow—are scarcely suitable for presents. Still there are a few objects that will suit your purpose. Some heretical foreigners buy unconsecrated Icons as mantelpiece ornaments, and purchase largely cloth of gold and silver, from which ecclesiastical vestments are made, for the purpose of making window-curtains and covering drawing-room furniture; but it is to be hoped that you have sufficient veneration for things sacred not to encourage such a practice. You may, however, buy as a curiosity some specimens of the cloth of gold, much of which is extremely beautiful in design and workmanship. From the numerous patterns, many of which are commonplace and gaudy, you will have no difficulty in selecting specimens of genuine old Byzantine ornamentation. Then there are the enamels. If you can find a good old specimen of what the French call *email cloisonné* you may safely give a good price for it, and you will not regret your bargain. If nothing of that kind is to be had, you may invest in a few of the ordinary modern enamelled cups. Many of them are exquisite both in design and colour. The *niello* work, too, can be recommended. But the most thoroughly original of all is the lace and the embroidery on towels, both of which are made by the peasantry according to traditional models. Of late years several manufacturers have been induced by the Director of the Industrial Museum to reproduce some of these native designs on various kinds of textile fabrics; but the experiment has not proved, so far as I can learn, a commercial success. The natural, unsophisticated taste of the peasantry has been corrupted, it seems, by foreign importations, and they now prefer vulgar, gaudy patterns to the old simple designs which they inherited from their forefathers.

Perhaps you think of investing in some furs; but I would advise you to refrain, especially if you do not happen to be a connoisseur. The idea that furs may be bought cheap in Russia is a popular fallacy. If you wish a sheepskin there is no objection to your buying it here, but it will be merely an incumbrance during a summer tour, and useless to you at home. The higher class of furs are very expensive in Russia as elsewhere. I remember, a few years ago, a friend of mine, who shared the fallacy above alluded to, requested me to purchase for him the finest fur I could find in Moscow. Being a rich man, he carelessly added in a postscript—"Money is no object. I wish my wife to have a really beautiful cloak." In penning these words he contemplated, as he afterwards admitted, spending something like a hundred pounds; but, had I taken him at his word, I should have been obliged to send him in a bill for about two thousand pounds sterling! Beware, then, of giving carte blanche to a friend for the purchase of a Russian fur. Russians can detect the peculiar excellences of furs far better than we can; and therefore a really exquisite specimen—one that combines great warmth, extreme lightness, equality of colour without being dyed, and all the minor requisites which only the experienced eye can detect, will probably bring a higher price in St. Petersburg or Moscow than in Paris or London.

Now that we have completed our purchases, let us go and have some refreshment in a "traktir"—a genuine national institution where we are likely to find some "local colour." There is a large one close by, and we are sure

to find there some good specimens of the Russian merchant class.

The room, as you perceive, is not very large, and a considerable part of it is occupied by the enormous automatic barrel-organ, which reaches to the ceiling, and is intended to represent an entire orchestra. The instrument might perhaps be pleasant enough in a gigantic hall or Crystal Palace, but here, in this small, low-roofed apartment, it is simply deafening, so that we cannot but think, with all due deference to Muscovite taste, that the £2000 sterling expended on its construction might have been more profitably employed. Such, however, is not the opinion of the native inmates, and they ought to know best. They thoroughly enjoy the harmonious din, and delight especially in the deep bass notes that make the building shake. In the music there is nothing Russian or peculiar. It is simply a collection of the Italian operatic airs which London organ-grinders patronise, and the instrument is merely a magnified, intensified barrel-organ, such as a bilious man might see and hear in a horrible nightmare. Next to the organ the most conspicuous object in the room is the big *samovar*, or tea-urn, which likewise reaches almost to the ceiling, and has from its magnitude also a nightmare look about it. How many gallons of boiling water it may contain I know not, but I have no doubt that if the quantity could be calculated the result would cause no little astonishment. It forms the centre of activity in the place, and round it collect the waiters—active, intelligent youths, dressed in white trousers and light silk shirts worn in the form of a blouse, who dart about like swallows. The third object in the order of magnitude is that portly Muscovite who sits by the window—as round and almost as capacious as the samovar. He has just finished his sixth tumblerful of scalding tea, and shows no signs of flagging. Had weak tea been the beverage in which the old Teutonic toppers indulged, that worthy Slav might have held his own among them, and worthily upheld at the great drinking-bouts the honour of his race. As it is, he has no consciousness of being anything heroic, any more than the old giants were when they went about their daily avocations. He is merely drinking his tea in a quiet, steady, business-like way as a respectable, weighty Moscow merchant should do; and, as to the quantity, it is nothing more than he and his fellow-merchants are accustomed to. His neighbour, it is true—that lean, white-haired man—cannot keep pace with him, but that is not wonderful, for he is not a genuine Russian merchant—at least, he was not so born and bred. Though the two men are now on a certain footing of equality, both being weighty men on 'Change, their past history is very different. The capacious gentleman is the son of a peasant, and was in his youth a serf like his father. By his own efforts he scaled the ladder of fortune—no one but himself knows precisely how, for he never troubles his friends with autobiographical details; and now he is one of the richest men in the city. A stranger, judging by his appearance, might reasonably hesitate before lending him a shilling, but anyone at all acquainted with the commercial world of Moscow would know that his word is good for several hundred thousand roubles. His friend beside him is of a very different origin. He was born a noble, received a good education, and was for some time a professor in the University. He loved letters, but he loved financing still more; and when limited liability companies came into fashion he launched boldly into numerous speculations, and rapidly amassed a large fortune. The third person at that table by the window represents another category of merchants—a category that is as yet not very numerous. Like the portly personage, he is of humble origin; but, unlike him, he is a man of some education. His father, though not very wealthy, had been able to send him to school, so that now he is not only well grounded in the three R's, but can even speak French. His accent, it is true, is far from perfect, and his grammar is by no means faultless; but he can talk well enough for all practical commercial purposes, and that amply satisfies his linguistic ambition. The other guests almost all belong, like these, to the commercial world. Some of them indulge in caviar, sterlet, sturgeon, fish-soup, pickled cucumbers, buckwheat, and other favourite Russian viands, but the majority confine themselves to weak tea, flavoured with lemon, of which they drink appalling quantities.

We must now, however, leave the ancient capital and take a glance at the provinces. To effect this we cannot do better than make a voyage down the Volga. We can get on board at Yaroslaff, and sail down with the current for five or six days. As the weather promises to be fine, we shall no doubt find it very pleasant. But how are we to get to Yaroslaff? As to that, there is no difficulty, for the distance is only about 135 miles, and there is a railway all the way. You calculate accordingly that the journey will take five or six hours, and that you will make it in the day time, so as to get an idea of the country through which the railway passes. If you really mean to do it in this way you must order a special train. Of the ordinary trains, including expresses, there is only one in the twenty-four hours, and it does not fulfil the required conditions. Instead of five or six hours, it takes eleven or twelve, and it starts about nine o'clock in the evening. We may, however, make a compromise. There is a morning train to Troitsa, about two hours' distance from Moscow, on the Yaroslaff line. We can then spend a day agreeably in visiting the famous monastery, the name of which is as familiar to Russians as that of Canterbury is to Englishmen. Perhaps I ought to say "much more familiar," for there are, I fear, many thousands of rural Englishmen who have never heard of Canterbury, whilst there would be great difficulty in finding a genuine Russian peasant, either on this side or the other side of the Ural, who has never heard of Troitsa. Often in some distant village, where you might think that the inhabitants had never been, metaphorically speaking, "half a mile from home," you may light on old men and women who have not only heard of the famous monastery, but have also seen it, and can describe it graphically in all its details. The explanation of this is that Russian peasants are much given

to making pilgrimages, and regard it as an occupation very useful not only with a view to eternal salvation, but also for the cure of bodily evils. Many are the wonderful cures that have been effected in this way, when all the ordinary resources of medicine and magic have proved unavailing. The blind have been made to see, the deaf to hear, the lame to walk, and I know not what more besides. The scientific reader here wishes, no doubt, to put a question or two: Are these so-called miracles well authenticated? Might not the cures, even when proved as facts, be simply fortuitous coincidences? Or, if this cannot be admitted, may we not assume that unusually strong faith may have some as yet uninvestigated physiological influence, which has nothing whatever to do with supernatural power? To all of which queries I must reply as the Scotchman did to his obstinate friend, who persisted in asking him whether a bee was a beast or a bird: "Don't trouble me with theological questions."

Whether these alleged cures are natural, supernatural, or mythical, the peasants believed in them as firmly as they do in Holy Writ—rather more firmly, probably, for they know very little of what Holy Writ contains, and they do know all the minute details of many such miracles. Pilgrimage-making is, accordingly, a favourite occupation for aged peasants, and orthodox believers look on Troitsa and Kief with much the same feelings as the good Mussulman looks on Bokhara and Mecca. The reader must not, however, imagine that the Russian pilgrimages are at all like those French pilgrimages that were so graphically described in this paper not very long ago. In Russia the ecclesiastical world has not yet been invaded by the spirit of modern enterprise. There are as yet no "Cook's Tourists" even in the secular world. The noble, it is true, who determines to visit one of the sacred places will probably "take the liberty to boil his peas," or, in plain language, avail himself of the railways and other means of conveyance; but the peasant still performs this part of his religious duties in the old ascetic style—trudging all the way, with staff and wallet, as his forefathers did before him, without knowing much about the road, and with very little money in his pocket. The word "pocket," be it remarked parenthetically, is here used in a metaphorical sense, for the Russian peasant commonly carries his money, not in his pocket, but in his boot!

Seen from a little distance, this Monastery of Troitsa—or, more correctly, of St. Sergius—has somewhat the look of an old fortress; and well it may, for it was during several centuries a very strongly fortified place, and the valiant monks were always ready to defend it obstinately when occasion demanded. When the Poles and Cossacks overran the country, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, they did not succeed in getting possession of this stronghold; and the Superior played a conspicuous part in the patriotic movement by which those invaders were expelled. During the French invasion of 1812 it had similar good fortune, or, to speak more reverentially, it was again miraculously saved from the sacrilegious hands of heretics and unbelievers. At that time the French troops desecrated the churches in the Kremlin of Moscow, appropriated all the valuables they found in them, and showed their enlightened hostility to superstition by disinterring and treating contemptuously the bodies of saints and martyrs. Hearing that there was a famous and wealthy monastery about forty miles to the north, they sent some troops thither, it is said, for the purpose of desecrating and pillaging; but the troops somehow lost their way, or were afraid of venturing too far from the main army, and never reached their destination. So, at least, I have been told; but I have no guide-book at hand to verify the statement. Whether true or not, the story is at least edifying, and teaches the moral that the Monastery of St. Sergius is still, even in modern times, under the special protection of Heaven. Had the French succeeded in taking the place they would have been well rewarded for their trouble, for the Treasury contains ecclesiastical vessels, vestments, and other objects of enormous value. One may behold there, in the course of a few minutes, more pearls than one is likely to see elsewhere in a lifetime. What their quality is I know not; but if it is at all in proportion to their quantity, then, I think, it is a pity that an institution, which is by no means fabulously rich, should keep such an enormous capital in an unproductive form. Might not the precious stones be sold and the interest of the capital devoted to education or some benevolent purpose? Such is the idea that naturally occurs to the secular mind; but secular minds, I have been told, ought not to meddle with ecclesiastical, and especially with monastic affairs. To a suggestion of the kind any of the monks might reply:—"Our present riches are not a tithe of what we formerly possessed. In old times we had vast landed possessions and thousands of serfs, and people of all classes gave us of their abundance. Now all is changed. Our lands and serfs were confiscated without compensation a century ago, and the voluntary contributions do not flow in so liberally as of old. Notwithstanding all that, we feed the hungry and do much for education. If you look into that large hall over the way you will see a goodly number of pilgrims eating the dinner provided for them free of charge, and if you visit those other buildings you will find that we have a theological academy which we have no need to be ashamed of. Many Bishops and Archbishops of the Russian Church have received their education there. Besides this, we have prosperous schools. The vessels and vestments you saw are for us sacred things, which should not be sold. Man does not live by bread alone."

Though the monks may be expected to bear constantly in mind this last dictum, the creature comforts are not entirely neglected in Troitsa. There is a tolerable hotel belonging to the monastery, and here we can have not only the delicate *karassi*, which are caught in the ponds close by, but also beef, mutton, and other viands from which monks are debarred by the rules of the Church. All monks in Russia follow the rules of St. Basil—or, at least, profess to follow them, which we may charitably suppose for our present purpose to be the same thing—and these rules prohibit the use of animal food. They are binding, however, only on those who take the vows, so that

we may enjoy a good dinner of the ordinary kind without qualms of conscience. The afternoon we spend in strolling about and conversing with the pilgrims, many of whom come from great distances, and in the evening we return to the station and continue our journey. Soon the night closes in but we do not thereby lose much in the way of scenery. The country which we traverse is, like nearly the whole of the northern half of Russia, a land of forest and morass, with here and there a village and an adjoining patch of cultivation. By the time we reach Rostoff, the only place of interest on the route, the sun has already risen. Rostoff is a very old town, and was in ancient times the capital of an independent principality, the Princes of which were rivals of the Princes of Moscow. The family is—if genealogical records are to be trusted—still extant, and one member of it is at this moment what we should call Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department. But the glory of the family has long since departed, and the city has become an ordinary provincial town, celebrated chiefly for its annual fair. There are several monasteries in the town and suburbs, and one of them is curious as having been founded by a Tartar! This will seem to modern ears a somewhat startling announcement, but in reality it contains nothing very wonderful or improbable. Remember that the Tartars were not always Mohammedans. When they conquered Russia, in the thirteenth century, they were Pagans, with a rude polytheism of some kind, but with none of that religious intolerance which Monotheism engenders. All foreign religions they treated with impartiality, and even with a certain respect. With the Russian clergy they lived on very good terms, and one of the Khans used to attend occasionally a Christian place of worship. Tartar princesses who married Russian princes, and Tartar nobles who entered a Russian Prince's service, naturally adopted Christianity, just as Protestant Princesses of the present day join the Greek Orthodox Church when about to marry the heir apparent to the Russian throne. Even missionaries, it seems, were allowed to visit the Tartar camp, and by these various means a certain number of Tartars became Christians. Thus it was that the son of a certain Khan founded a monastery at Rostoff, and after his death he became a saint of the Russian Church! Unfortunately, the mass of his people did not follow his worthy example. On the contrary, they adopted Mohammedanism, and from that time there were no more conversions to Christianity. We have here an instance of those apparently fortuitous events which exercise an incalculable influence on human history. If the Tartars and their cousins the Turks had adopted Christianity instead of Islamism how different the history of Eastern Europe would have been!

After leaving Rostoff, which, by-the-way, must not be confounded with the town of the same name on the Don, we arrive in about two hours at Yaroslaff, which was also at one time the capital of an independent principality. It is a very fair specimen of Russian provincial towns. What strikes the traveller most is the large number of churches—a peculiarity which gives the place a picturesque appearance. Like Russian churches in general, they have bright green roofs, out of which rise one or five painted cupolas—green, blue, or gilt—and some of them have curious, picturesque belfries. The interior of the town is less pleasing than the view from a distance. The streets are infamously paved; very many of the houses are in a by no means satisfactory state of repair; and there is in general a look of carelessness and squalor. After the churches and monasteries, which seem to be out of all proportion to the number of inhabitants, the largest buildings are the Government offices, which look into a vast open space—something between a square and a big fallow field or wilderness. Running parallel with this open space, behind a row of irregular houses, is the Promenade—a long, shady walk, overlooking the river and the flat country beyond. If tradition is to be trusted, this Promenade had a rather curious origin. The story deserves to be recorded, as illustrating "the good old times" which have only recently passed away. It was, as nearly as I can recall, to the following effect:—Sometime during the first quarter of the present century a fabulously rich merchant of the town was convicted of forgery and sentenced to transportation for life. Under ordinary circumstances this commercial Croesus might easily have escaped, for he was willing to pay a very large sum for his release, and the Russian officials of that time were fearfully corrupt; but the Governor of Yaroslaff happened to be, by some accident, an honest man, and stubbornly refused to be bribed. In spite of refusals, the efforts were continued, and at last it occurred to the Governor that the sums offered him might be usefully employed for some public object. A proposition was therefore made to the culprit that if he would give 150,000 roubles (I think that was the sum, but perhaps my memory deceives me) for the construction of a promenade on the high bank of the river, he would be allowed to escape the penalty of the law. The proposal was accepted, and the money paid; and then began the process of effecting the arrangement with all the appearance of legality. This is the most curious part of the affair. Though the Governor was a powerful man and could do all manner of unlawful things, he had to respect all forms and formalities most scrupulously, like an ordinary mortal. A little official comedy, therefore, had to be played. One document certified that the prisoner had died, and another, duly signed, gave the results of the post-mortem examination. Then the coffin, which was supposed to contain the remains of the deceased, received the rites of Christian burial, and some more official documents were drawn up and signed. Everything was done in such perfect order that had the affair been afterwards investigated it would have been found that no irregularity had been committed. And no one had any reason to complain. The culprit got off with a heavy fine, which taught him, let us hope, to avoid forgery for the future; the Governor had the satisfaction of feeling that he had conferred a great benefit on the town, and the inhabitants received a very agreeable promenade without being obliged to pay for its construction. That the story is absolutely true I cannot

venture to assert, but I may say that it was told to me by one of the worthy Governor's successors in office.

At the end of the Promenade, overlooking the river and the wilderness aforesaid, stands a long, high edifice, built originally in the barracks style of architecture, but now adorned, somewhat incoherently, with Corinthian columns. This is the Lyceum, founded for the benefit of the nobles of the province by a member of the wealthy Demidof family, and now transformed into a school of law for the benefit of the whole Empire. There are juridical faculties in all the Universities—in St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kharkof, Kief, Odessa, and Dorpat—but this is the only public school devoted exclusively to the study of law. Let us enter and get some idea of what a Russian school of law is. We cannot but be charmed by the general appearance of the interior. The rooms are large, well ventilated, scrupulously clean, and in every respect admirably arranged. Here is a framed document showing the course of study. The completeness of it is very surprising, and certainly not to be expected in this out-of-the-way corner of the world. There are lectures on all kinds of law—Roman, Russian, commercial, criminal, international—and also on cognate subjects, such as juridical philosophy, political economy, and finance. "If we had only such a school of law in England!" we involuntarily exclaim as we read the programme. A sceptic might, perhaps, remind us of the French proverb, "*Qui trop embrasse mal étreint*;" and it must be admitted that nowhere has the maxim more frequent application than in Russia. Youths who try to master all these subjects in three or four years are apt to get a mere smattering of many things without thoroughly mastering any. But a few minutes' conversation with the enlightened director suffice to allay our fears on this score. Whilst maintaining that a course of study should be wide and "liberal" in the best sense of the term, he recognises that the students should confine their best energies to a few fundamental subjects, and regard the others as merely subsidiary and complementary. From the class-rooms we pass to the library, where we find over 9000 independent works—perhaps twice as many volumes—in various European languages. We are pleased to observe that English historical and philosophic literature is largely represented. But the most interesting part at the present moment is a very remarkable collection of books relating to the Slavonic provinces of Turkey, and in general to the Eastern Question. On that subject we can get here the most complete information. All important contributions from Germany, France, and the Slavs themselves are at hand; and if we wish to know what has been said on that most intricate of questions in the British Parliament we have only to turn to "*Hansard*," a complete copy of which is to be found in the room devoted to periodical literature. Altogether, the arrangements are so well adapted to the wants of the studious that we feel inclined to sit down and begin at once a long course of reading and study. But we must not yield to the temptation, for our time is short, and a great part of our proposed tour lies before us. We must hurry on, therefore, more quickly than we have hitherto done.

The Volga need not detain us very long. If we made the voyage in the flesh we should have to devote to it at least five or six days; but making it as we are doing, we may accomplish it in a very few minutes. The banks on both sides for some time after leaving Yaroslaff are flat and uninteresting, and, with the exception of the large and much-venerated monastery

to the right, we notice nothing worthy of special attention till we reach Kostroma, a considerable town, picturesquely situated on a bit of rising ground to the left. Had we time to disembark here we should be sure of a hearty welcome from the worthy Vice-Governor, a hospitable gentleman who loves everything English—our faults and vices, of course, excepted—knows English literature better than many educated Englishmen, and speaks our language as fluently and correctly as his mother tongue. Let us employ the few minutes at our disposal to pay our respects to him, and then go on by the steamer. The night is spent in groping our way cautiously among shoals and sandbanks, and some time on the morrow we arrive at Nizhni-Novgorod. As the Great Fair is at present going on, we must remain here for at least a

can at all times be forded by those who prudently provide themselves with high boots. For those who wish to study the peculiar conditions of Russian trade, two or three weeks may be profitably employed here, but the mere tourist who is in search of nothing more serious than "first impressions" will find a few hours quite sufficient for his purpose. By that time he will have seen specimens enough of the big burly Russian merchant, the patient, listless peasant, the unmistakable, irrepressible Jew, the picturesque Georgian, the polite, keen-eyed Persian, and the numerous kinds of merchandise which these various personages offer for sale.

At Nizhni we leave the small, uncomfortable, flat-bottomed steamer in which we have hitherto travelled, and get on board a large commodious steamer built on the American

model and resembling closely those that ply on the Hudson and the Mississippi. From the spacious upper deck we can enjoy at our ease what little scenery there is to see. The left bank is flat and uninteresting, but the right bank sometimes rises to a considerable height in a gently sloping fashion, and occasionally a town or village is seen on the slope. On both sides there are pretty bits of wooding, and on the whole the scenery, though tame, is pleasing enough; but we miss sadly everything like historical associations. More and more we feel that we are in a strange land—a land with which we have few bonds of sympathy. The names of the places we pass are to us but empty sounds, which convey no idea and awaken no old memories. A learned Russian friend who overhears this remark comes up and assures us we are quite wrong. The country through which we are passing, he says, its historical associations, like other countries. To the north lies the land of the Tcheremiss, and to the south the land of the Tchuvash, and in both of them many a stubborn battle was fought between Russians and Finns. In this valley of the Volga many a time the Tartar hordes swept along like a whirlwind, spreading death and devastation in their track. There, beside that old monastery, sacred to Macarius, is a spot which for every Russian must be classic ground, for it is there that was held, in ancient times, the Great Fair that is now held at Nizhni. When we reach Kazan, and our friend points to the town and relates to us how it was once the capital of an independent Khanate, how it was captured by Ivan the Terrible, and how many a brave Russian found a grave before its walls. At the junction of the



A CIRCASSIAN CHIEF OF DAGHESTAN.

few hours. All who take the least interest in Russia have heard of this great annual gathering, which is sometimes spoken of as if it were one of the seven wonders of the world. We must not, however, expect to find anything very wonderful. In former times, perhaps, when Russian commerce was in a more primitive condition, the Great Fair was really a most interesting institution. Old men relate how numerous merchants from China and from all the petty states of Central Asia used to bring their goods hither for sale; and how landed proprietors from all parts of the country used to come hither for the purpose of laying in their yearly supply of household goods. But all this has been to a great extent modified by the construction of railways and similar causes. Traders and purchasers still come from all parts of the country, but they are by no means so numerous; and the number of Asiatics which one meets is very small. Much has been done, however, for the convenience of those who do come. Instead of the miserable wooden sheds in which the merchandise was formerly stored, there are now long rows of brick buildings; and the spaces between them, though muddy enough in wet weather,

Volga with the Kama, which comes down from the Ural Mountains, he can point to a monument still more ancient and venerable. Not far from the river, and almost visible from the deck of the steamer, stand the ruins of the old town of Bolgari, an ancient capital of the people who are now settled to the south of the Danube and are known by the name of Bulgarians. Next comes, high up on the left bank, the town of Simbirsk, about which there is not much to be said, except that it was almost entirely destroyed by fire some fifteen years ago, and has since been rebuilt. But when the Zhiguli hills heave in sight our amiable, self-constituted cicerone waxes eloquent. "There," he exclaims, "are hills rich in traditions as the Rhineland, and once frequented by freebooters daring as those of the Scottish Highlands, whom Walter Scott has immortalised! This is the country rendered for ever memorable by the exploits of Stenka-Razin and Pugatcheff! Here"—. But the other glorious memories of this classic region must remain undescribed, for at this point our guide's raptures are interrupted by a friend of his, who has been listening impatiently to the tirade for some time,



THE DANUBE, APPROACHING THE FRONTIERS OF SERVIA AND ROUMANIA: THE IRON GATES.

and now, coming up and tapping him on the shoulder, remarks—"Look here, Nicholas, son of Nicholas, how is wheat selling in Piter (St. Petersburg)? Let us go down stairs and drink a little glass of bitters; it's near dinner-time!"

After dinner and all next day our amiable friend continues his efforts to make us feel that we are passing through classic ground. He compares Samara to Chicago—for some inscrutable reason best known to himself—and Saratof to several Italian cities, and has stories to tell about many of the places which we pass. But all his efforts are in vain, and his eloquence finds no response in our hearts. If he lives long enough he may find more sympathetic listeners in our grandchildren, who will doubtless have Russian history and everything else at their fingers' ends, and may perhaps experience some kind of thrill from the mention of such names as Monomach, or Mistislaf the Brave. For us even such comparatively modern names as Stenka-Razin and Pugatcheff are simply names and nothing more, and when we reach Tsaritsin we think we have had quite enough of Volga scenery. Instead of going on to Astrakhan, as our friend advises, we leave the steamer and cross over to the Don, which is only about thirty or forty miles distant. Whilst driving through the town, preparatory to starting, we notice one thing that is very characteristic. On the market-place and close to the railway station we observe two strange-looking tents, and on going nearer, we see that it is a little colony of Kalmucks. Such are the curious contrasts to be found in Russia—pastoral nomads and railway porters within a stone-throw of each other.

After a fearful amount of jolting on the execrably constructed railway, which here connects the Volga with the Don, we reach Kalatch and get on board the steamer. The scenery of the Don is still less interesting than that of the Volga, and the navigation, in spite of the flat bottoms and small draught of the steamers, is still more intricate and difficult. We have, however, the feeling that we are at least in a semi-historical country. We have all heard of the famous Cossacks of the Don—though we may know little about the details of their history and their long struggle with the Tartars—and, accordingly, we look with interest at the specimens which we meet on board. Fine, big, muscular fellows they are, and much more amiable and communicative than their exterior would lead us to suppose. Report says that their old marauding tendencies are not yet completely eradicated; but we have no means of testing the truth of this assertion, and we know that reports—even when official—are not always to be trusted. They are not a peculiar race, as is often supposed, but genuine Russians—the descendants of men who in old times fled from the central provinces to the Steppe, where they could lead the life of "bold borderers." From their habit of capturing Tartar women they became to some extent a mixed race; but this admixture of Tartar blood was never very great, and did not much affect their character. Many of them, especially on the lower Don, are of dark complexion, and do not much resemble the fair-haired peasant of the north; but their features are thoroughly European, and they are thoroughly Russian both in language and sentiment. If you happen to hold any peculiar theory about the Cossacks being Tartars you had better not mention it in their presence, for they would consider the idea an insult, and they are not yet sufficiently imbued with the scientific spirit to discuss such questions with coolness and impartiality. They now compose a kind of irregular cavalry, and are of great use in such expeditions as the Russians have to make occasionally in Central Asia. How far they may be used effectively in a more regular kind of warfare we shall probably have an opportunity of judging in the course of the next few months. Two good qualities, at least, they undoubtedly possess; they are individually brave, and they have the talent of being able to live and thrive where regular troops would starve. No doubt, in the present war they will thoroughly enjoy a brush with their old enemies the Circassians, and there will probably be a good deal of "paying off old scores."

On arriving at Rostoff—not, of course, the Rostoff already alluded to—near the mouth of the river, we find a railway that will convey us to the foot of the Caucasus. So recently as three years ago this journey had to be made with post-horses, and those who have made it in that primitive fashion will certainly congratulate themselves that it can now be done in a more rapid way. To see a country and to know something about it, posting is a much better means of travelling than railways, and under ordinary circumstances the intelligent traveller will willingly bear the additional discomforts and annoyances for the sake of the additional advantages. But in a region like that which stretches from the mouth of the Don to the Caucasus these advantages form a poor compensation for the tedium and discomforts of the journey. The country is solemnisingly flat and very thinly populated, and between the post stations there is nothing to be seen but bare steppe. The only point of interest on the route is Piatigorsk, where five high isolated hills rise abruptly from the plain, and some rich mineral springs have created a town of considerable size and importance. From Piatigorsk onwards the route is more interesting, for in clear weather the main range of the Caucasus is clearly visible. Slowly but surely it approaches, increasing every hour in grandeur, till we find ourselves in Vladikavkaz on the Terek—a small town commanding the entrance to the famous Dariel pass.

The British tourist who carefully maps out his route before starting, and endeavours to cram as much as possible into his programme, generally finds when he has got over three fourths of the ground that he is considerably behind time. Not having made sufficient allowance for delays and digressions, and being obliged to finish his journey within a given time, he is compelled to scamp over the remainder of the route at American speed, to the wonderment and pity of foreign tourists of more sluggish temperament. Here, at the foot of the Caucasus, we find ourselves in this predicament. Before us lie the great Caucasian range and Transcaucasia—a little world in themselves—in which we might spend usefully and agreeably a

whole summer; but already our time is nearly exhausted. We must drive hurriedly through the Dariel Pass, admiring, of course, the grand scenery as we go, but refraining from all excursions in those tempting side valleys. First along the banks of the Terek; then through the narrow gorge and up to the bleak stations of Kazbek and Kobi; next over the high ridge, and then rapidly down by a tributary of the Kur to the smiling plains of Georgia. As we approach Tiflis we see before us one of the most picturesque towns in the world—half European, half Asiatic. More than ever we feel tempted to linger here. If we had but a few weeks at our disposal we might collect an enormous mass of information regarding the curious region of which Tiflis is the capital. In the centre of the European part of the town there is a public library, which contains a very good collection of books relating to the Caucasus and adjoining regions; and soon we discover that there are many valuable living sources of information—men who are ready to put their stores of information at the service of all serious investigators. For ethnography and statistics we have Bergé and Seidlitz; for zoology, topography, and geography we have Abich, Stebnitzki, and Kovalenski; for history and antiquities we can find a most able guide in M. Bayern. Mr. G. Arzruni can tell us much about Young Armenia, and M. Khatisof can describe and show the great works of irrigation which are being carried on. If we wish to make scientific excursions, we have merely to apply to Prince Mirski, and he will afford us all the protection we require. But we must leave all that till some future time, and, after taking leave of these kind friends, start for Poti by train.

The railway from Tiflis to Poti is a new line, finished at great expense a few years ago. After passing over the Suram ridge the train descends by gradients, which make the unaccustomed traveller feel uncomfortably nervous, into the fertile valley of the Rion, and in the evening arrives at Poti, a small town at the mouth of the river. A certain interest attaches to this town at the present moment. A few days ago a telegraphic despatch announced that it had been bombarded and burned down by a Turkish fleet; but the news has not been confirmed. It is a small place, built on a marsh, and so unwholesome that no inhabitant, it is said, escapes fever. The entrance to the port—if port it can be called—is so shallow that only flat-bottomed steamers can pass over the bar—a fact that explains why the Russians covet Batoum, a fine Turkish port a little further down the coast. In the course of a few hours we begin to feel the depressing effect of the heavy, feverish atmosphere, and are glad to get on board the steamer and take our departure.

A coasting voyage of two or three days brings us to classic ground with which we are all familiar—Kertch, Theodosia, Balaklava, Sebastopol. Did time permit we should land at Kertch, and proceed by road, so as to enjoy fully the wonderful scenery along the coast; but our time is short, and we prefer devoting the little that remains at our disposal to visiting Sebastopol and its neighbourhood. The town is still to a great extent in ruins. It is only since the abolition of the clause of the Treaty of Paris relating to the Black Sea that it has begun to show signs of revival. The subsequent completion of the railway uniting it with the rest of the Empire has laid for it the foundations of a new prosperity, but a death-like stillness continues to hang over the place. On the heights surrounding the city everything remains pretty much as it was when the Allies left it. With a melancholy interest we visit the places whose names are still so familiar to us, and here and there in some lonely spot we unexpectedly come upon a graveyard with English names on the tombstones. As we read the touching inscriptions, and recall the great siege, we involuntarily ask ourselves what we have gained by that lavish expenditure of blood and treasure, and whether we are on the eve of a similar struggle. Are we once more to drift into a hazardous enterprise in which even victory costs so dear? Are we again to act over again the heart-stirring scenes of Alma, Balaklava, and Inkerman, and to witness once more the heart-rending scenes in the hospitals of Scutari? On these points we have, like other people, our fears and hopes, but we must keep them to ourselves. To discuss the chances of war and peace belongs to the editorial department. We are simple tourists, who do not venture into the region of high diplomatic mysteries. If we have conveyed to the reader some general idea of the Russian grand tour we have done our work and may bid him farewell.

THE ARMIES OF THE CONTENDING POWERS.

BY LIEUT.-COLONEL HENRY BRACKENBURY, R.A.

The Proprietors of the *Illustrated London News* have requested me to write an article to serve as an introduction to the study of the present war. They tell me that there is a great desire among the public for information as to the nature and organisation of the armies now in face of each other, and as to the military features of the countries which have become, or are likely to become, the scene of military operations. It is not without difficulty that such a task as this can be fulfilled, for everyone must have observed with what singular reticence the Russians and Turks have withheld from the press all information as to the details of their troops in the field. The strict censorship of the Russian press, and the care with which newspaper correspondents of other nations have been excluded from the head-quarters of the army at Kischeneff, and in the advance through Roumania, have made it practically impossible to obtain very close detailed materials for a description of the Russian army of the Pruth; while still less has leaked out in regard to the army of the Caucasus. The Turks, who were willing enough towards the close of last year to give information to the English, have, ever since the Conference and the subsequent negotiations, withheld most studiously all intelligence as to the condition or numbers of their forces in the field, feeling, probably that, from the date of their refusing the terms of the Conference, war with

Russia had become an absolute certainty, and that therefore it was necessary to keep secret the numbers, nature, and distribution of their armies. From one source or other, however, I have been able to collect a fairly accurate general idea of the numbers and composition of the various forces, while their organisation and their normal formation in time of peace can be gathered from publications which, from their nature, are not likely ever to have met the eyes of the general public. My own experience, as a student of contemporary military history, convinces me that the greatest difficulty in following with any care military operations during war arises from want of such previous preparation as can only be arrived at by a study of the organisation, nature, and equipment of the contending armies, and a thorough knowledge of the military geography of the theatre of war. In hopes that the information which I have been able to gather from a number of different sources may be of advantage to the public, I here place it most willingly at their disposal. Few people can be expected to take the trouble to search out from dry technical publications the chief matters of interest relating to the troops engaged in the campaign now taking place; and therefore, although the present article cannot pretend to give much information which might not have been collected by anyone from published sources, it may be of use in drawing together in one place a quantity of scattered materials.

Military students in this country are much indebted for a knowledge of the Russian and Turkish armies to those officers who have, in the Intelligence Department of the War Office, carefully studied the military establishments of those countries. A work called "The Armed Strength of Russia," translated from the German and published by the Intelligence Department in 1873, gave, in minute detail, the organisation of the Russian forces at the time when the original work was published by the Austrian War Department; but that date carries us back some six years, and since then great alterations have been made. Fortunately, Captain Clarke, of the Royal Artillery, an officer of the Intelligence Department, has published, in a recent number of the *Journal of the Royal United Service Institution*, a most valuable paper on recent reforms in the Russian army, which enables us to correct to a great extent those points in which the "Armed Strength of Russia" is behind the age; while, in the same journal, a paper on the Russian army, by Lieutenant Vincent, of the 23rd Fusiliers, lets us into some of the inner life of the Russian soldier. Much of what will be here said upon the Russian army is derived from the information contained in these papers; while a work by Captain Cooke, of the 22nd Regiment, on "The Ottoman Empire," also published by the Intelligence Department, is my chief source of information as to the Turkish armies.

The Russian Army consists of the regular army, the irregular troops, and the militia. I will speak first of the regular army. On Jan. 1, 1874, a great change in the Russian military system was inaugurated. A new law was introduced, making military service obligatory upon the whole nation. The Emperor had become satisfied that the old system of filling up the ranks was unfitted to produce for him a soldiery capable of contending with the trained armies of Europe. Up to this date the ranks of the army had been the receptacle for all the dregs of the male population. Was a man a criminal, a notorious bad character, a ne'er-do-weel, with whom nothing else could be done, the ranks of the army became his inevitable portion; while men possessing intelligence sufficient to make of them anything more than the mere automatons who could carry a musket and stand to be shot, the more stubbornly and resolutely the more they were primed with *vodka*, were to be counted in each battalion almost upon the fingers of one's hand. This was a relic of the old system of barbaric serfdom under which Russia for so many years groaned. Moltke, in his work on the Russian campaigns in Turkey, describes to us the recruiting system of the nation at the time of the great war of 1828 and 1829. The army, he tells us, was entirely composed of serfs. The Government having decided from time to time upon the number of troops required, an Imperial ukase was issued, demanding so many men per cent, a large margin being left for desertions. According to their population, the various districts, towns, and villages were called upon to furnish their quota of men, the landed proprietors being assessed for recruits in proportion to the number of serfs whom they owned. The noble who owned serfs chose at his will from among them the recruits for the army. Serfs on the Crown estates were selected for service by the magistrates. As a matter of course, those were elected as recruits of whom their masters, for one purpose or another, wished to be rid, and sometimes the reasons for sending men to serve in the army were no better than those which made David give Uriah a place in the foremost rank. It was almost impossible to escape by flight, and resistance was in vain. The men were, without warning, suddenly seized and led off in chains to the nearest seat of Government. It was unlikely that the man thus forced into the ranks would ever see his family again, for the term of service was for no less than twenty years in the Polish provinces, twenty-two years in the Line in Russia, and twenty-four years in the Guards. Moltke truly says that, though as a soldier the serf gained his liberty, he lost all else; for, should he ever return after his term of service expired, he found his place filled by another, and all memory of himself gone. He was sent to a garrison hundreds of miles away from his home, where, probably, the language was unknown to him, so vast and so varied are the countries under Russia's sway.

Mr. Wallace, in his marvellous work on Russia, has told us how the young peasant is made to marry at a very early age, in order that he may bring a worker into the family; and as the recruit might be taken to the army at any age between twenty-one and thirty, it is evident that a vast number of those draughted into the ranks were separated from their wives and children never to see them again. The Emperor Nicholas shortened the term of service; but this was most objectionable to the owners of serfs, for it made the conscription fall oftener

and, as every soldier ceased to be a serf, and every serf had an actual pecuniary value, the more that were taken from any estate the heavier was the pecuniary fine to the proprietor. Hence long periods of stagnation when no recruits were called up to the army, and sudden calls for large bodies on the appearance or threat of war; so that at the very time when it was most important to the army to be well filled with tried soldiers it was suddenly filled up with a mass of untrained and practically useless recruits.

The Crimean War demonstrated to the military authorities of Russia many of the faults of their system; but the one great obstacle to anything like genuine reform existed for many years after the Peace of Paris. It was not until the emancipation of the serfs by the Emperor Alexander in 1861—that greatest work of reform ever accomplished by any living man—that the ground was really prepared for those great organic changes which have since taken place. The Russian War Ministers were not asleep to the enormous advantages which were derived by Germany from the system adopted by her of large contingents retained only for a short period of service, and passing from the ranks to form trained reserves; but to adopt any such system as this would have been to interfere to an extent practically impossible with the rights and privileges of the proprietors of the serfs, and there therefore remained no possible alternative to the old system of retaining men for long numbers of years with the colours. Thus, where service was to all intents and purposes banishment for life from home, where the army was filled with the outcasts of serfdom, it may well be understood that the soldier's career was looked upon with dislike, and that the adoption of it was almost a degradation. Hence, even for serfs, certain exceptions were allowed, and at any time a substitute might be purchased, the price accepted by the Government being 200 roubles, or about £35.

Certain changes were introduced tending always in the direction of shortening service. Indefinite furlough was allowed after thirteen years of service, or to those enlisted after September, 1859—after ten years. Men of specially good character might be sent on furlough after eight years' service, but all these furlough men were at any time liable to be called to the ranks. Hence, what with the period up to which he might be drawn as a conscript, lasting till his thirtieth year of age, and the many years during which, after a period of service in the ranks, he still remained liable to be recalled, the Russian peasant was so interfered with and his tenure of any civilian occupation so uncertain, that industry was hampered to an extent seriously injuring the vital power of the nation. In 1861 the serfs were emancipated; but it was not until 1870 that the liability to military service of every Russian male was recognised. The great war fought between Russia's two nearest neighbours on the battle-fields of Bohemia, and the outpouring of Prussia's vast hosts over crushed and desolated France, taught to the Czar and his advisers the stern lesson that any nation which hopes to hold her own as a great military Power must have great armies composed of thoroughly trained men and a rapid system of mobilisation. In November, 1870, while the Germans were besieging Paris, an Imperial ukase was issued proclaiming every Russian male liable for military service. What power this gave may be estimated by the fact that the male population of Russia at the time was not less than thirty-six millions; but the application of such a law to a country extending over about eight millions of square miles, with little railway communication and road communication poor and undeveloped, was matter of the greatest difficulty. It was at once recognised that to call the whole male population to arms would be to take a step that would ruin Russia financially, and would give her an army of even greater strength than she required. A population of thirty-six millions would give not less than six millions within the usual limits of age considered desirable for soldiers, and, accordingly, an annual contingent of only about 25 per cent of those attaining twenty-one years of age was yearly to be drawn, the remainder, who might escape conscription for the regular army, being organised into local militia, in which they were to remain until their thirty-sixth year.

The new law of January, 1874, is that under which the Russian army is now formed; though, of course, the greater bulk of the troops actually at present serving were enlisted under the earlier condition of things. Under the new law the forces of Russia are divided into an active army, a reserve, and a militia or general levy. Finland alone of all the Russian provinces is excepted from the operation of this law. The present peace establishment of regular troops in Russia is no less than 760,000 men, and, as the duration of service in the active army is for European Russia six years and for Asia seven years, an annual contingent of about 150,000 should be sufficient, allowing for casualties, to keep up this strength. The contingent, however, for the present year is about 190,000. Every year some 700,000 attain the age of liability, and consequently from one fourth to one fifth of the number is required by the conscription; the remainder pass into the militia, where for the first four years they are embodied into district regiments, and are liable to augment the ranks of the standing army, and for the next sixteen years are to form part of the district militia force. Military service in Russia presses less heavily than in many of the other great military nations of Europe. In France there is one man under arms for every 82 of the population; in Germany, 1 in 93; in Italy, 1 in 124; Russia has 1 in 127; Austria, 1 in 150; and England about the same, 1 in 148. Advantage is taken of the comparatively small proportion of those attaining the age for conscription which is required for the ranks to grant exceptions from service to very large numbers of young men. In all countries an only son, who is the support of aged parents, is exempt from service; but in Russia, when once the parents have attained the age of fifty-five their only son is exempt, even though they have independent means of existence. Postponement of the time of entry to the army is also granted to those who are engaged in the study of professions or in any occupation which is useful to the State. Clergy, medical students, chemists, veterinary

surgeons, artists, schoolmasters, officers of the mercantile marine, and others, obtain either exemptions or postponement; while, in order to encourage education, the term of service in the ranks is abridged by two years for the recruit possessing even the most elementary instruction, such as is given in the primary schools. The ordinary recruit serves in the active army for six years; he then passes into the reserve, where he serves for nine years or thereabouts, on permanent furlough, allowed to pursue any calling or occupation, but liable to be called out twice during the entire period for six weeks' drill each time. The army, however, as it now exists, contains only three contingents of the men called up under this new law—none of them have as yet passed into the reserve. It is therefore composed, to a very great extent, of such men as were enlisted under the old rules; and the only reserves at the disposal of Russia are men on furlough, who under the old system served from eight to thirteen years in the army with the colours.

For administrative purposes Russia is divided into governments, and these into circles. Each government has a military commander, each circle a circle commander. The latter officer is a member of the circle recruiting commission to which is confided the levy, by lot, of the conscripts. The circle commander is responsible for their selection for the various arms. Men with special intelligence or education are assigned to the engineers or artillery; those well built for riding or with a knowledge of horses to the cavalry. The Guard has a choice among all the recruits. The numerous exemptions above named would alone be sufficient to protect all those of a superior class or education from military service in the ranks; but there are additional methods by which regimental service as a soldier is avoided. If able to pass an educational test, any Russian may enlist as a volunteer, and according to the degree of his education his service is limited to twenty-four, six, or three months. From these men are selected, after very short periods of service, non-commissioned officers; and those who do not remain in the army pass into the reserve for nine years. There is also a system in existence very similar to that under which the German three-years volunteer enlists. Volunteers generally have the privilege of choosing their own regiment, and are allowed to live apart from the men, maintaining themselves at their own cost. This, of course, enables men of superior refinement to learn the training of a soldier without being subjected to the coarse and disagreeable companionship which must necessarily be involved in life in a barrack-room or billets. The reader of Mr. Wallace's "Russia" will be able to judge how little of intellectual companionship—how little, indeed, of anything that is not merely animal—there can be among a soldiery coming almost entirely from the peasant class, which but a few years ago was a body of serfs, hopelessly ignorant, utterly uneducated, the mere beasts of burden of an agricultural lord, the goods and chattels of an illiterate country squire. Yet, according to Mr. Vincent, he is not a bad fellow, this Russian soldier:—"Miserably paid, and almost worse fed on that which is not calculated to make men thrive, on black bread, on a sprinkling of meat mixed up with rice and a herb which makes it sour, with quass, a terribly sour, perfectly non-intoxicating beverage to drink, the Russian soldier flourishes, and so flourishes that he can endure almost anything. His spirits and good humour, too, never flag; and in every company, squadron, or battery there is a musical troupe who sing and dance admirably. When marching at ease the troupe always goes in front, and enlivens the route by comic singing and curious antics, although they never lag or get in the way."

A hard life it is that the Russian soldier leads. For the first six months he is attached to a training battalion, squadron, or battery, where he is clothed and drilled almost to death. At the end of this time he is appointed to a regiment. If he happens to be selected for the Guard, he gets housed in wooden-hut barracks, where, closely packed though he may be with the seventy or eighty comrades in his hut, he at least has warmth and shelter; but if he fall to any other portion of the army he is billeted on the town or village where his regiment happens to be quartered, and the quarters given to the troops are not always the best. The warm shelf over the stove which forms the peasant's bed in a Russian hut is not given to the soldier, and the winter cold must often be terribly trying. During the summer months the troops are all camped out, and go through a considerable amount of training. The daily pay of a full private in the Russian army is just one farthing; a lance-corporal gets a third of a penny, a senior non-commissioned officer a halfpenny, and a sergeant-major twopence-halfpenny. In time of war, on the march, and during manœuvres the men receive increased pay, equal to 50 per cent more than the ordinary pay; and, instead of the rations of fresh meat and brandy which formerly were issued to the men in peace as well as in war, a mess allowance is now given to non-commissioned officers and men in time of peace, varying, according to the market prices in the towns where they are quartered, from one penny to three-halfpence per man. Yet this gives a larger allowance than might be expected, for by the rules of the Greek Church 169 days of the year are fast days, on which the men may eat no meat; so that the whole of the 365 days' mess allowance is available to be spent on the 196 days of the year on which the consumption of meat is permitted. In addition, the men receive certain rations in kind: the daily ration per man is about 2lb. of flour, a little peeled barley, and salt, which is supposed to make a ration of nearly 2½lb. of bread. It is said, however, that the men save a large quantity of the flour in each mess and sell it to dealers, buying other and more savoury articles with the proceeds. They also earn money by hiring themselves out as labourers, painters, &c.; part of the money so earned going to the mess fund. But for this addition they would scarcely have sufficient to keep body and soul together. The drink called *kvas*, or quass, is prepared from flour and leaven. Yet on this poor food the Russian soldier stands great hard-

ships and makes wonderful marches. He supports great heat and great cold better, perhaps, than the soldier of any other nation. Some of the marches made on the expedition to Khiva four years ago show that the men must have had marvellous powers of endurance. In coarse and ill-made clothing, with a heavy knapsack and heavy rifle to carry, with ninety rounds of ammunition, and a short sword girt round his waist, in addition to the bayonet always fixed, the Russian soldier, with his feet swathed in linen cloths instead of socks, and with his trousers tucked into his long boots, steps out at such a pace that it is difficult for a good walker to keep up with him. His amusements consist to a great extent of gymnastic exercises, every barrack-room being furnished with a wooden horse and parallel bars, and every camp in summer having a complete apparatus for a gymnasium. His early peasant's training in his village, far from artisans and shops, has taught him to use the hatchet and other tools, to cook, and to sew. His clothing is made up and fitted in his own company, and a soldier of four years' service has no less than four suits of clothing. The first is only used for grand inspections and gala days, the second for regimental and town parades, the third for rough work, and the fourth, or oldest, for barrack wear. His little extravagance is vodka, but it is evident that the profits of the regimental canteen cannot be very great when we remember that the whole pay which the soldier clears is only one farthing a day. Mr. Vincent says that Russian soldiers do not smoke, and only drink periodically, which we suppose is due to their want of money.

As regards the discipline of the troops, the scale of punishment in the Russian Army would indicate that there is need for great severity. The disciplinary punishments that can be inflicted on the non-commissioned officers and men are as follows:—Reprimands; confinement to barracks; extra turns of fatigue and other duty; confinement to the guard-room, where no spirits or tobacco are allowed, and singing, and even conversation with comrades, is forbidden; solitary confinement on bread and water for a period limited to fourteen days, when for two days out of every three only bread, salt, and water are allowed, the ordinary ration being issued on the third day, and no candles being allowed after dark; and, lastly, solitary confinement in a dark cell, limited to eight days. Corporal punishment can only be inflicted on men already on the punishment-list, and may not exceed fifty lashes. Each rank, beginning with the corporal, has power to award a certain amount of punishment; thus—a corporal may give twenty-four hours' confinement to barracks, a sergeant-major forty-eight hours, a subaltern eight days, a captain two months, a battalion commander three months. No one under the rank of a captain of a company can award corporal punishment; no non-commissioned officer can award solitary confinement. Mr. Vincent says that if discipline is measured by the amount of crime, Russia yields the palm to no country; if discipline is to be established by the respect shown to officers Russia is nothing behind; but he goes on to admit that real discipline is of a very inferior nature, in consequence of the very inferior quality of the officers.

There is no doubt that a very inferior state of education throughout the country generally has in past times made it most difficult to obtain a body of properly qualified officers for the Russian army. The sons of the smaller class of nobility were brought up on their fathers' estates very often without more than the rudest elements of primary education; but in proportion as roads have been improved and railways introduced, the facilities for repatriating to educational establishments have increased, and education generally spreading, has widened the field from which a superior class of men can be drawn. Moreover, the Government has taken the greatest possible pains to educate specially for the military service a very large body of youths. At the date of our last information on this subject there were ten elementary military schools established by the Government, containing nearly 3000 pupils, sons of officers, and of officials holding officers' rank. In these schools pupils are prepared for cadet schools, of which I shall presently speak. There were also twelve military schools, containing nearly 4000 pupils, also sons of the privileged classes, which train their scholars for admission to the war schools. The course of education comprises modern languages, mathematics up to a low standard, history and geography, the elementary principles of natural sciences, landscape and geometrical drawing, gymnastics, and drill. The pupils of the elementary military schools enter between the ages of twelve and fifteen; and must pass a qualifying examination in religion, reading, writing, and arithmetic. Those for the military schools must either have passed through the elementary schools or undergo a rather higher entrance examination. The great object of these schools appears to be not so much to give a high education as to impress upon the young men a strong feeling of duty, a high military spirit, and a healthy patriotism. Great attention has been paid to training a body of men competent to act as instructors.

The above may be considered as preparatory schools. Next come the schools for the training of officers for the army. There are four war schools—the Paul's war school and the Constantine war school at St. Petersburg, the Alexander war school at Moscow, and the Nicholas war school of St. Petersburg. The first three are for the training of infantry, the fourth for the training of cavalry. Each of the infantry war schools contains 300 pupils, who are admitted between the ages of sixteen and twenty on producing a certificate from the preparatory military schools or a civil upper-class school, or on passing an entrance examination. The object of these war schools is to train up a body of regimental officers. The pupils have the rank of cadet, and the course of education comprises the usual subjects taught in a military cadet college. The course is for two years, at the conclusion of which the students are appointed sub-lieutenants, ensigns or cornets, or cadets, according to the degree of proficiency which they have attained. Finland has a special cadet school of its own at Helsingfors. The pupils must be natives of Finland, and must pass a preliminary entrance examination. After a similar

course of instruction to that given in the military and war schools, they enter the army on the same conditions as the students from the war schools. There are about 120 cadets. The most aristocratic school in Russia is the Imperial Corps of Pages, established at St. Petersburg for the education of 150 Court pages, who must all be sons either of the old nobility or of Court Chamberlains. The course of instruction comprises the subjects taught in the military and war schools, and the pupils are appointed ensigns or sub-lieutenants in the Guard or ensigns in the army according to their qualifications. Each military district has also its own cadet school, resembling very much the cadet schools of Austria. Candidates for admission to these must have passed through an elementary military school, or must submit to an entrance examination. Non-commissioned officers of the army are allowed to enter these schools to qualify for commissions. The course of instruction lasts for two years, three months of each year being passed by the students with regiments of the army, in order to add a thoroughly practical acquaintance of the profession to the theoretical knowledge acquired at school. There are 3500 pupils in these schools. The Michael Artillery War School and the Nicholas Engineer War School at St. Petersburg train candidates for the Artillery and Engineers respectively. The course of instruction is for three years.

In addition to the above, which are exclusively devoted to

training young men to become qualified for commissions in the army, there are schools for the higher professional education of officers. The Nicholas General Staff Academy is open to all officers of and below the rank of major in the army who have served for at least four years with their regiment and passed a competitive examination. The usual course of instruction in a staff college is given here, and those officers who obtain special certificates receive, if below the rank of major, a step of promotion; if of the rank of major, one year's pay instead. The Michael Artillery Academy and Nicholas Engineer Academy train officers of Artillery and Engineers who have passed special examinations in the higher branches of their respective professions; and the Military Law Academy at St. Petersburg educates officers for the higher posts in the judicial departments. In addition to these, there are training schools for special branches, a military school-masters' seminary, technical and pyrotechnical schools, intended to train a body of efficient foremen and foremen instructors for the technical artillery; a military drawing-school, for the education of the minor officials of the topographical corps; a topographical school, for training the officers of that corps; an elementary military school at Tiflis, which specially trains men for the various departments of the army in the Caucasus; a military law school, to train officials for the department of military law; schools for dressers, to train up surgeons, assistants, and apothecaries; a riding-

master's school; and a medical and surgical academy, which confers degrees and educates surgeons for the army—surgeons educated at the public expense being compelled to serve for thirteen years, those educated at their own expense for eight years, in the army. The greater portion of the expense in the whole of these various training establishments is borne by the Government. In them all a large portion of the pupils are on the foundation, and the payment made by others is comparatively small. The object of the Government is to educate, at no matter what cost, a superior body of officers and officials for all the various departments of the army.

When we learn that there are nearly 14,000 pupils in these military schools, and observe how great their number is as compared with those of any other nation, it would seem at the first glance that Russia should have the most highly educated body of officers of any country of the world; but in reality it is not so. The fact is that in Russia there is so great a lack of elementary schools, and the educated middle class forms such a small fraction of the population, that it is necessary for the Government to take into its own hands and give a military direction to that general education which in other countries, possessing a higher degree of civilisation, is attained at the ordinary schools and in the various training colleges for the civil professions. Moreover, with all these schools the demand for officers for the huge Russian army is so great, and the competition of the civil professions with the army is growing so



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rapidly, that it is most difficult to keep the regiments supplied with the necessary number of regimental officers. Mr. Vincent says:—"The non-existence of what the Germans call the *Kleinadel*, and we the squirearchy—of a *haute bourgeoisie*, a class blessed with small pecuniary means, yet endowed with the proudest patrician feelings—renders the question of officering the Russian army one of the most serious difficulty. Although Russia is essentially a military nation, where uniform is the only passport, the attractions of the Bar, of Commerce, of Literature, and of Art are every year luring more and more officers to change their ill-paid and hard-worked profession. Ere long the Government will have to take very stringent measures; for now at least 5000 officers are wanting, and principally in the scientific corps, whose members have been called away to construct and superintend the new railways, roads, and bridges all over the country." In spite of all these military schools, it is the exception to find a Russian officer outside the Guard with a knowledge of any language besides his own. The Staff Academy at St. Petersburg languishes for want of candidates; and a largish proportion of the staff officers of the army is appointed direct from regiments without any special staff training. In actual practical regimental work the Russian officer appears to be fairly instructed, but as a body the staff is infinitely inferior to that of either Germany or Austria.

The pay of the Russian officers is wretched. The pay of a captain of the line is under £65 a year, that of a lieutenant-

colonel only £93 a year, a full general has £300 a year, a major-general £178 a year. It is no wonder that we hear stories of Government stores misapplied by the generals in command, of cartridges filled with sand instead of gunpowder, of returns of clothing and material signed certifying the presence of articles which on the examination for mobilisation are found to have no existence except on paper. The pay is manifestly insufficient to support the position of an officer. In war it is increased by about 50 per cent, and officers stationed in some of the more remote and expensive districts, or holding appointments, receive the same increase as in war. Certain allowances also are given for lodgings, and officers holding commands receive an allowance for table money. Officers of the Guard have higher pay and the enormous advantage which, until recently, was given to our regiments of Guards, of an advance of brevet rank in each grade. An officer desiring to enter the Guard from the rest of the army is provisionally attached for six months, during which he is socially on probation. Promotion throughout the whole army is by seniority up to the rank of lieutenant-colonel, and then by selection. About six weeks' leave of absence is given every year. Before a Russian officer is allowed to marry he must deposit in the hands of the Government 5000 roubles as a guarantee that he possesses sufficient means. Russian officers are never allowed to appear out of uniform.

As regards the relations between the officers and men, the

outward and external relations are those of friendly courtesy. Every officer, from the subaltern drilling a squadron to the general inspecting a division on parade, or the Emperor himself at a review of an army, commences with a salutation to his troops, "Your good health, my children," to which the men reply, "We wish it also." It is said that on Imperial parades the shout, "We wish good health to your Imperial Majesty!" sounds very grand from the sonorous words of which, in the Russian language, it is composed; but we know that such salutations are more official than real, and that in Russia it is, probably, as in France, that the soldiers who one day shout "Vive l'Empereur!" are just as ready on the next to shout "Vive le Président!" and it may well be that the standing reply of the Russian troops when they receive an order, "We gladly obey," is sometimes mixed with words that have a very different meaning. There is little or no doubt that there was considerable disaffection among the Russian troops on the Roumanian frontier in the early part of last winter.

An excellent system which prevails in the Russian army is the instruction of the men by their officers, though perhaps it is carried with them to an extent which is not good for either officers or men. The Emperor, fully alive to the evil of want of education amongst the masses in Russia, desires to make of the army a great school of popular instruction; and so during the long winter months, when frosts and snows compel the

troops to remain for the greater part of the day under shelter, the officers are employed as schoolmasters teaching their men. The ordinary instruction of the soldier comprises reading, writing, and arithmetic, and simple instruction in tactics. In every regiment of cavalry, battalion of infantry, battery of horse artillery, or brigade of field artillery there exists a school for the training of non-commissioned officers under officers selected as instructors. Any soldier of two years' service who is likely from his physical qualities and character to make a good non-commissioned officer, who can read and write and knows the simple rules of arithmetic, may enter the school, where he is taught some little history, geography, composition, and arithmetic, and in the cavalry and artillery the elements of veterinary knowledge; and subsequently, if he has proved himself an apt pupil, the elements of the military art, field fortification, tactics, and mathematics. The following description of one of these Russian regimental schools is by an English officer:—"You would have been no less astonished than I was to see a pupil selected, apparently indiscriminately, by the General accompanying me, and ordered to bisect a given straight line, according to Euclid, on the black board. You would have been astonished, too, on entering a regimental school-room, to find the men listening to a lecture on tactics, and to see a relief model of the environs; on inquiring its purpose, for the General to order two pupils to stand out, to hear him give them an

extended operation to work, the one to advance with such an object against the other defending; to see painted tin models of companies and battalions at once worked, and, when the General stopped the really sham fight, to hear each of the men in turn give a succinct account of his movements, dispositions, and intentions, corrected now and again by his officers, but never assisted; to see another man stand out and make his dispositions for throwing an advanced guard across the Vistula, describing them the while. Nor would your astonishment lessen when a fourth pupil described the general geographical features of England, enumerated our chief towns, traced the course of our rivers; when a fifth, starting from London, followed the track of a ship to St. Petersburg, naming the countries, their several capitals and Sovereigns, by which he passed; when a sixth, starting from some far distant spot in Russia, traced the course by canals to St. Petersburg, enumerating the principal places on the route and their capabilities for billeting troops."

In summer field-works are constructed by the men; in winter models of works are made by them in sand. The pupils of these schools live apart from the rest of the men, rejoining their companies for the grand annual manoeuvres. The system of tactics taught is now almost exactly that of the German army. The Russian infantry is formed, however, in two ranks, and moves in rather heavier columns than the German. The greater portion of the army is now armed with the

Berdan breech-loading rifle; a portion only still retains the Krinka converted rifle.

Without entering elaborately into details, it may be desirable to give here a short sketch of the organisation of the Russian army. To begin with the infantry:—Each battalion of infantry consists of four companies of Line and one company of rifles. On the ordinary peace establishment each company has a strength of 120 officers and men, raised in time of war to over 200, so that the war establishment of a battalion is over 1000. Three battalions form a regiment, except in the regiments of the Caucasus, where there are four battalions to a regiment. Two regiments form a brigade, and two brigades form an infantry division. There are forty-one such divisions of Line in the Russian army, of which six in the Caucasus are composed of four-battalion regiments, the remainder of regiments of three battalions. Thus, each of the six Caucasus divisions has sixteen battalions, the remaining divisions of the army twelve battalions each. In addition to these there are three Infantry divisions of the Guard and four divisions of Grenadiers, one of which is in the Caucasus. A Rifle brigade of the Guard, five brigades of Rifles of the Line, a brigade of Rifles of the Caucasus, and a brigade of Rifles of Turkestan. In round numbers, the Infantry of the Russian army, if all the battalions were raised to a war footing, would amount to 650,000 men. The Caucasus battalions have only four companies each, instead of five, but the



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strength of the four companies is equal to that of the five in the other battalions.

The Cavalry of the Line is formed into fourteen divisions, each of which consists of two brigades, each brigade of two regiments. In each division there is a regiment of Dragoons, another of Lancers, another of Hussars, and a fourth of Cossacks. A regiment has four field squadrons, each squadron about 128 men, and is kept up in time of peace to the full war establishment. Besides the fourteen divisions of Cavalry of the Line there is a Caucasian division of Dragoons, two divisions of Cavalry of the Guard, and a division of Don Cossacks. In time of war the Cavalry of the Guard is formed into three divisions instead of two, and the Caucasian division is divided into two divisions, a regiment of Cossacks being added to each, so that the total number of cavalry divisions becomes twenty. A cavalry regiment consists of five squadrons, of which one is a reserve or dépôt squadron, and each squadron is divided into four sections, each under the command of a subaltern. The greater part of the horses of the cavalry are purchased from dealers by the Commander of the reserve squadrons, whose duty it is to purchase and break in the remount horses as well as to train the recruits. The price given for horses is from £20 to £27. No horse is taken on the strength of a regiment until he is rising six years old, and it is said that at twelve years horses are always cast. To us who retain our horses for service till they are twenty years old or more, this may seem extraordinary; but the fact is that the

hard life to which the Russian troop horses are exposed makes it absolutely necessary that they should be only in the perfection of working age during their service in the army. In the bitter depths of the Russian winter their wooden sheds alone protect them from the winds that sweep over the snowy waste. They are well fed, peace rations being one and one third pecks of oats and about 9 lb. of hay. They are generally of a short, thickset breed, with great power of work, which is necessary, considering that the average weight of a hussar, with all his equipments, forage, and the three days' provision which he carries on the march, is scarcely under 25 st. It is said that sore backs are practically unknown amongst the Russian cavalry, which is attributed to the peculiar saddle in use. From the description given of it, this must be something like the saddle in use in the Belgian army, a mere wooden frame without panels, the side bars of which are carefully fitted to the back of the individual horse for which the saddle is to be used. Underneath the saddle are placed four separate folds of felt, the blanket is placed over the saddle, and a single girth passed over all. When one felt becomes saturated with perspiration another is placed next the horse's skin. Mr. Vincent says that he saw a squadron of lancers with every man in full marching order, and every horse saddled and bridled, in six minutes and a half from the time when the commanding officer, entering the stable quite unexpectedly, found the men lounging about and gave the alarm. Great efforts are made to render the riding of both officers and men as

perfect as possible. The dragoons of the Russian army are real dragoons—that is to say, they are not cavalry soldiers, but mounted infantry. They wear neither spurs nor swords, but carry rifles, and when the order is given to dismount one man in three remains to hold the horses, which are kept together under a subaltern, whose duty it is to keep them as much as possible under cover, yet as near as possible to the dismounted men.

Every infantry division of the army has attached to it a brigade of field artillery. Each brigade consists of six batteries. Forty-four of the forty-eight brigades consist each of three 9-pounder and three 4-pounder batteries. The other four brigades have 3-pounder mountain batteries in place of mitrailleuses. The 9-pounder and the 4-pounder batteries are armed, some with steel, some with bronze breechloaders. The so-called 4-pounder throws a common shell of 12 lb. weight, the 9-pounder a shell of 24 lb.; but the charges are extremely small in proportion to the weight of the shot, and the initial velocity of the projectile is consequently very low, and the trajectory curved to a most undesirable extent. The Russians had until lately no factory for the manufacture of steel guns, and many of those in their army have been obtained from Krupp's factory at Essen. But they now have a factory at Obuchoff, and since its establishment they have become more independent of foreign industry. A large gun from these works was exhibited at the Vienna Exhibition. The bronze guns are

for the most part cast at Olonetz, near St. Petersburg. Each battery has eight guns, so that the forty-eight brigades, consisting of 288 batteries, have no less than 2304 guns. In addition to these, there are twenty-six batteries of regular and twenty-two batteries of irregular horse artillery, with 288 guns, making a grand total of 2592 guns. On the peace establishment only four guns per battery and two ammunition carts are horsed in most of the brigades. In war a 4-pounder battery has a strength of 255 non-commissioned officers and men and 151 horses, sixteen ammunition carts, two baggage waggons, four other waggons, including a field forge, and the ambulance. A 9-pounder battery has 325 men and 206 horses. The ammunition is carried in two-wheeled carts, not in waggons. These are drawn by three horses abreast, the driver riding the near horse. It need scarcely be said that it is most difficult to control three horses driven in this manner under fire, and, of course, if one wheel of a two-wheeled cart is broken the cart is upset. The arrangement of the ammunition boxes is very inferior. Intrenching tools are carried in each ammunition cart for the purpose of forming gun-pits or improving the passage over broken ground. The projectiles are common shell and shrapnel, with percussion fuzes: 120 rounds per gun are carried for the 9-pounders, 130 rounds for the 4-pounders, 98 rounds in boxes on pack-saddles for the mounted batteries. For each mitrailleuse 6290 cartridges are carried in 262 cases in one ammunition cart. The mitrailleuse cartridge is interchangeable with that of the new Berdan rifle, with which the infantry are equipped. The harness is clumsy, and the rope traces too long, but by a wise provision each battery starts on service with a complete set of new harness, so that there is less danger of its falling to pieces in a campaign. The mitrailleuses were introduced into the army during the war of 1870, before the German successes, at a time when a great mystery was made of these weapons in the French army, and before their effects for field service were known. They are ten-barrelled Gatlings, modified by General Gorloff, of the Russian army. The breech can be moved laterally during the firing, so as to give a great lateral spread to the bullets.

Without entering into details of the constitution of transport, artillery parks, engineer field parks, and other services, which, however important, are only accessories to the three arms, we will now briefly consider the organisation of the troops above described for war. When orders are given to mobilise, the calling in of the reservists and men on furlough is intrusted to the circle commanders, who possess and keep up registers of all men in their respective circles. Orders detailing the points at which these men are to join have all been prepared beforehand, so that no time may be lost. These are at once dispatched to the men, and they are called up to the different points of rendezvous, where arms, clothing, and accoutrements are, or should be, ready for immediate use. For the presence of these stores the circle commander is responsible. All horses in the country are registered, and when a mobilisation is ordered they are requisitioned by the Government. It is evident that in a country where the population is so widely scattered, railways so few, and roads so inferior as in Russia, mobilisation must be a comparatively slow process, and it would not perhaps be an exaggeration to say that at least double the time is required for mobilisation in Russia than is needed in Germany. In each circle are always the head-quarters of a certain number of divisions, and those divisions are first mobilised which are likely to be first required. So far as we can judge from the scanty accounts that have reached us in the newspapers, the troops in the circles of Odessa, Kieff, and Karkoff were the first to be mobilised in Europe, the troops of the Caucasus being mobilised about the same time for the present war. With the exception of the Guard corps, the largest unit of troops in time of peace is the division; but for war the divisions are collected in army corps. A division consists of two brigades, each brigade of two regiments, each regiment (with the exceptions already given) of three battalions of infantry; so that the strength of the infantry of the Line of a division is about 12,000. Each division has also its artillery brigade of six batteries, forty-eight guns, with about 1500 gunners, one rifle battalion about 800 strong, one Cossack regiment of cavalry also about 800, and a field artillery park. Two such divisions of infantry, together with a division of cavalry, form an army corps. The cavalry division consists of two brigades, each brigade of two regiments, and has two batteries of horse artillery. There is also an artillery park belonging to the corps. We thus get the strength of an army corps about 25,000 infantry, 3000 cavalry, and 112 guns. It is tolerably well known that in the first instance, for what was called the Southern Army—or, as the Russians openly called it, the Army of the Danube—four such corps were mobilised. Of these, two had their head-quarters at Kischeneff, one at Tiraspol, and one at Orgeleff. These four corps had probably a strength of about 130,000 infantry and cavalry, and 450 guns, with over 30,000 horses. In addition to these four corps, numbered 8th, 9th, 11th, and 12th, which were placed under the orders of the Grand Duke Nicholas, two other corps were mobilised—one, the 7th, at Odessa, and one, the 10th, at Sebastopol, which were placed together under one commander, with head-quarters at Odessa, and were called the Coast Army. Since the opening of the campaign there is reason to believe that large reserves from districts in rear have been brought up to join the army of the Danube. It is tolerably well known that four divisions of infantry, a brigade of rifles, and a division of cavalry, in all some 60,000 combatants, were mobilised for this purpose; and from what I can gather, I judge that these have been formed into two corps, which are now on their march. In addition some ten regiments of Cossacks, with some Cossack horse artillery batteries, were also prepared in reserve. There is reason to believe that much of the cavalry reserves has recently been moved up to the front, raising the cavalry of the army to 25,000 men, and that the army is accompanied by a siege-train of about 300 guns.

Very little information has leaked out about the army of

the Caucasus, but I have good grounds for estimating that a force of 95,000 infantry, 12,000 cavalry, and 300 guns of the regular army were ready for the field on the frontier of Asiatic Turkey on the day when hostilities broke out. Certainly there were not fewer troops, and it is probable that to these might be added some 10,000 militia, and a force at Erivan whose numbers I have not been able to ascertain, but which probably consisted of two of the seven divisions of the army of the Caucasus. Roughly, these troops were thus distributed:—At Alexandropol, 30,000 infantry, 4000 cavalry, and 130 guns; at Akhaltsich, 6000 infantry; at Erivan, 10,000 infantry, 4000 cavalry, and 50 guns; at Ozurgeti, 20,000 infantry, 1000 cavalry, and 40 guns; at Tiflis, 10,000 infantry, and 30 guns; at Sukhum Kali, 10,000 infantry, and 40 guns; while the remainder of the infantry and cavalry were distributed at various points along the frontier. The command in chief of the army of the Danube is in the hands of the Grand Duke Nicholas, an untried man so far as war is concerned, and not generally credited with any special amount of ability. His health also is known to be weak. The real command of the troops will here probably, as in the case of most armies commanded by Royal Princes, rest in the hands of his chief of the staff. This officer, General Nepokoitschitzky, has the reputation of being a skilled strategist and tactician. He, too, is comparatively untried in the field, but is believed to have thoroughly mastered the theory of modern war. The command of the army of the Caucasus has been given to General Loris Melikoff, an officer who served in this same theatre of war in the campaign of 1854 with considerable distinction. He is an Armenian, and it is said that he has been chosen to command for this reason; not only because of his knowledge of the country, but because he will better be able to influence the Armenian population. His chief of the staff, General Duhovskoi, is untried in war, but came out of the staff academy with a reputation for brilliant military talents. Several of the officers commanding corps in both the European and Asiatic armies bear German names; and, indeed, a very large proportion of the ablest officers in the Russian army are Germans.

Little or nothing is known in this country of the organisation of the army of the Caucasus; but English officers who have visited the army of the Danube report that at the beginning of spring it was in first-rate condition for war, with all its details of transport, ammunition, columns, parks, field-hospitals, and pontoon-trains complete, and that officers and men were alike thirsting for the commencement of operations.

Before leaving the subject of the Russian army, a few words about the Cossacks may be of interest. These form the chief irregular troops of Russia. The greater number of them are the Cossacks of the Don; but there are also Cossacks from many other parts of the Russian dominions—from Kuban, the Terek, Astrachan, Orenburg, the Ural, Siberia, the Amur, &c. The Cossacks of the Don are those now to be employed in the European campaign, and their organisation may serve as a type for that of the whole body. Until Jan. 1, 1875, they had no permanent organisation. They were brought together in a military district on the outbreak of war, formed into regiments, and commanded by officers and non-commissioned officers appointed from the whole body. At the termination of the campaign they were disbanded. Mobilisation was slow, regiments had no cohesion, *esprit de corps* was impossible. For the last two years they have been organised. The active troops are divided into three classes. The first or preparatory class consists of young Cossacks from eighteen to twenty-one years of age. In this class they are trained for a portion of the time at their stanitsas, or villages, and then pass into the field class, where they serve for three or four years embodied in regiments during peace, being then granted furlough till twelve years in this class have been completed. Afterwards they pass into a reserve class for five years. Men on furlough and in the reserve class are liable to be called up for war. The Don Cossack contingent alone furnishes in time of war sixty-two regiments of cavalry and twenty-two batteries of horse artillery. They provide themselves with their own equipment and riding horses. They are, in fact, military colonists. The regiments are called "polks," and each regiment is divided into six "sotnias," or squadrons, of about one hundred each. They are thus described by Mr. Vincent:—"Tall, powerful men, on small, lean, hardy ponies, which they guide with the thinnest of snaffle bits, and single reins, armed with long lance without a pennon, short sword, pistol stuck in the girdle, and rifle in leathern case slung behind, who, creeping silently, yet swiftly, on to an enemy, are ubiquitous in the field—their ponies' heads almost sniffing the ground. They have become the terror of many a foe of Holy Russia. Their dress is most picturesque. They use no spurs (except in the escort of the Emperor), but have a small lash whip slung on to their wrists. They ride admirably, yet with stirrups so short that in winter, when riding in overcoats, and nothing but the calf of the leg is seen, one wonders where they have managed to stow the thigh. Members of a manly race, all of whom are soldiers, trained to arms, associated with and accustomed to horses from their earliest infancy, always left to shift for themselves, never nurtured in luxury or comfort, these Cossacks of the Don are invaluable troops for escort, police, outpost, foraging, and scouting duty; yet their deficiency in education would probably prevent their performing European cavalry service with the same intelligence as the Prussians did in the late campaign."

We will now pass to the consideration of the armies of Turkey. When first the Ottomans overran the fruitful provinces of Southern Europe they gave to the vanquished their choice between death, conversion to the creed of the conquerors, or submission, with payment of tribute. The soil which was conquered belonged by the doctrine of the Koran to the Sultan, the Vice-Regent of God. The Moslems themselves were not to till the land, but were to fight for the spread of their religion. Thus, nothing suited them better than that a large portion of the inhabitants of a conquered country should refuse to accept the faith of Mahomet, and should remain as agriculturists and payers of tribute to support the

soldiers of the faith. These thus submitting were called "rayahs," and, while their duty was to pay a capitation and a land tax, the duty of the Moslems was to receive the taxes and to fight for Islam. We have here, then, a true feudal system. Just as in Europe the feudal system of raising levies at the outbreak of war gave place to a system of small standing armies, so under the rule of the Sultans a special standing army grew up. The corps of Janissaries was recruited chiefly from the children of Christian rayahs taken from their families when very young and brought up in the Mussulman faith. They it was who carried the victorious standard of the Prophet to Belgrade, to Constantinople, and to the walls of Vienna. In course of time the corps of Janissaries attained very large proportions, and took the form of a corporation rather than a mere fighting body. They became unruly, and wished to be the masters rather than the servants of the Sultan. In order to check their excesses successive Sultans raised and gradually increased a standing army apart from the Janissaries, and in 1826, when the Janissaries revolted, Sultan Mahmoud attacked them, destroyed them as an organised body, and dispersed those who were not slain. The Janissaries thus destroyed, there only remained to the Sultan that nucleus of a standing army which had been used for the suppression of the Janissaries, and this at a time when the outbreak of war with Russia was imminent. Then it was that Sultan Mahmoud endeavoured to form a regular army upon the European system, himself directing the drill of his troops. Moltke thus describes the result of his efforts:—"The novelty of these measures, the opposition they encountered, the necessity for immediate action, and the want of time, caused everything to be hurried. Among his own followers Sultan Mahmoud found no one enlightened man to aid him with his counsel—all had to be done by means of foreigners and by the Sultan's own iron will. The recruits were seized in their villages, often carried in chains to Constantinople, and there kept as prisoners. There was an utter lack of intelligent native officers, and religious prejudice stood in the way of employment of foreigners. The Rayahs were excluded from the military service. The youngest men were selected from among the Moslems, in the hope that they would sooner get accustomed to the tiresome constraint of discipline and remain longest in the service. But the dislike of the Turks to the service, their close quarters in the overcrowded barracks, their vices, and the wretched hospital arrangements, made sad havoc in their ranks, so that new levies were constantly required. The army, therefore, was composed of men disciplined after the European fashion, wearing Russian jackets and Turkish trousers, with Tartar saddles and French stirrups, and English sabres. It consisted of Timariots, or troops giving feudal service; of troops of the Line, whose service was for life; and of militia, who served only a term of years, of whom the leaders were recruits, and the recruits mere children. The system of organisation was French, and the instructors were men from all parts of Europe. The splendid appearance, the beautiful arms, the reckless bravery of the former Moslem hordes, had disappeared; but yet this new army had one quality which placed it above the numerous host which in former times the Porte could summon to the field—it obeyed."

The army thus formed was broken to pieces by the war of 1828 and 1829 with Russia, and after the Peace of Adrianople the work of reconstruction began; but still the army of the Ottoman Empire retained its great characteristic, that it was composed of men of the Mussulman faith alone, Christians being rigidly excluded from serving in the ranks. While the Mussulmans gave to the State their personal services as warriors, the Christians paid a "haradsch," or poll tax. After the war of the Crimea, when the great Powers put pressure on the Porte to improve the condition of its Christian subjects, a Hatti-Humayan was issued providing for the extension of military service to all subjects of the Porte, irrespective of their religious belief; but from the date of its issue it was evaded. Although a fixed number of Christians was by this order to be drawn yearly, the men never were enrolled, and an annual tax was imposed upon the Christians in place of military service. This tax, called the "bedel," constituted in reality a compulsory exemption by purchase; and the Porte justified its action by saying that the Christian population was not disposed to accept military service. Thus, in reality, the pretended admission of the Christians to military service became merely the excuse for the imposition of a new tax. Admission to the military schools for the training of officers was refused to the Christians, and the only step taken to carry out the provision of the Hatti was the raising of one cavalry brigade of Christian volunteers, chiefly Poles and Bulgarians. The Poles have now nearly all disappeared from the Turkish army, and the brigadier of the Christian brigade is a Turk. The fact is that religion lies at the very root of Turkish military service. The basis of the whole Turkish conscription is the doctrine of the Koran. The thought of a Jehád, or Holy War, is the lifeblood that flows in the veins of the Turkish army; and it is practically impossible that Christian races of the empire can be admitted to service on terms of equality with Mussulmans so long as the great principle which makes the Turkish soldier brave in battle is that if he falls with his face to the enemy he dies a martyr to his creed and at once enjoys the delights of Paradise. Far from this being an injury to the Christians, however, it is an advantage to them and a grievous injury to the Mussulmans. The Christian knows what tax he has to pay, and it is but small. He is left free to cultivate the soil, to breed and bring up his children; but the perpetual drain for military service impoverishes the governing race, and by taking away all the flower of the Turkish manhood from peaceful occupations prevents the development of the race and its multiplication by marriage. The military service, too, is unequally distributed. The inhabitants of Constantinople, of Crete, of Scutari in Albania, of large districts of Asia Minor and Arabia, Syria and Kurdistan, are exempt from furnishing recruits. Four millions out of the 16,000,000 of Mohammedans are thus released from military service, the whole burden of which falls upon the remaining 12,000,000.

In 1869 a Special Commission was appointed, under the presidency of Omar Pasha, to consider the question of admissions to the army; and it recommended that military service should be introduced among them, except among the Bosnians, Herzegovinians, and Greeks. The Armenian chiefs, however, refused compliance; and the Government, unwilling to provoke an insurrection, gave way. Military service, moreover, is unequally distributed in the sense that it falls more heavily upon the peasant class. An exemption by purchase and the provision of substitutes is allowed, and the richer men avail themselves in large numbers of the privilege.

The following description will give a general idea of the organisation and method of recruiting the Turkish army. The army is divided into the Nizam or standing army, the Ihtiat or first reserve, the Redif or second reserve (in two classes), and the Mustahfiz or territorial militia. The period of service is for twenty years—viz., in the Nizam, four years for infantry, five for cavalry and artillery. The men then pass to the Ihtiat, where they complete their six years of service; from that to the Redif, where they serve for three years in each class, and finally for eight years to the Mustahfiz.

According to the reorganisation project of 1869 the annual contingent of recruits should be 37,600 men, which was calculated to produce, in 1878, an army of 700,000 men. The Nizam should contain 150,000 troops, the Ihtiat 60,000, and the Redif 96,000 in each class, and the Mustahfiz about 300,000; but, in reality, nothing approaching to these numbers has ever been attained.

Financial embarrassments have compelled the Porte greatly to reduce the annual contingent, the numbers passing to the Ihtiat and Redif being, of course, correspondingly diminished. The Nizam cannot be kept up to its full strength without absorbing almost the whole of the Ihtiat. Until very recently, at all events, arms and equipments were only provided for one half or one third of the Redif; while absolutely nothing was done to form cadres for or to train the Mustahfiz. Thus, at the outbreak of the present war, the military forces of Turkey were vastly inferior to those of her great antagonist.

For purposes of recruiting the country is divided into seven military districts or "ordu," corresponding with the seven corps of the army. The three corps quartered in European Turkey are compelled, however, in consequence of the depleted condition of the Mussulman population in Europe, to draw a large portion of their force from the recruiting grounds of Asia. All men from the age of twenty-one to twenty-four are liable to conscription, and draw lots each year during that time. If they escape each conscription, they are at once draughted into the Redif and escape service in the Nizam. The conscription takes place under the superintendence of a mixed civil and military commission. The Mollahs or priests, the Judges, and the members of the Ulema or Law Guild are exempted by law; so are those physically unfit for service, and those who are the only support of aged parents. All others are liable to conscription, exemption by purchase being allowed in time of peace. The price before the outbreak of the present war was fixed at 5000 piastres, about £45. If the full 700,000 Turkish troops were enrolled, the proportion of men serving would be about one in twenty-three of the Mussulman population, supposing the recruiting to be extended over the whole of the provinces of Turkey.

The Turkish "Nefer," or private soldier, is by nature and tradition warlike. He believes in the destiny of the Ottoman race to conquer the world. He is easily stirred by an appeal to his religious fanaticism to undergo the greatest hardships in the sacred cause. He longs for war as an opportunity for living at the expense of a conquered country on better fare and in greater comfort than in time of peace. Though strict laws against plunder have been introduced, a certain amount of pillage of the Giaour will ever be allowed to the Turkish soldier, as his recompense for the hardships of the military campaign. He is able to live upon food so scanty that almost any other than the Turk would starve upon it. He is by nature obedient, the obedience of apathy and constitutional Oriental laziness. He goes into battle believing in Kismet, or Fate, and encounters the enemy's bullets with a stolid indifference, believing that it matters not whether he encounters one shot or a million, for he will stand or fall according as it has been predestined by Allah. He has no inducements to study his profession or to rise out of the dull mechanical performance of his work of routine; for that corruption which pervades the entire nation has taken away from him that one great stimulus to exertion which in olden time was the very birthright of each man of his race, the right to rise to command by dint of superior military qualities. An old law provides that one third of the commissions in the army should be given to men from the ranks, but it is systematically evaded by the promotion of men who are Court favourites, and who only join the ranks, it may be but for a few hours, in order that they may be promoted to be officers.

It is said that the Turkish soldier suffers terribly from that curious form of disease known by medical men as nostalgia, and which we call home sickness. Little care is taken to provide the men far away from their places of birth with news or with letters from home. Months often pass without a post arriving; and it is said to be not infrequent to see strong, vigorous men refuse to eat and drink, and cry like children for furlough. Athletic sports, tale-telling, singing, dancing, form their amusements. In the evening, round their camp fires, the officers assemble and the men dance in their presence. Much of their unhappiness is, doubtless, due to the entire absence of womankind from among them. These Turkish soldiers, if well led and a little better educated, would be as fine troops as any that are to be found; but they have no education, and they are totally deficient of all knowledge of trades or handicraft. The Turk is by heritage a warrior, and he leaves to the subject races all the cares of the craftsman and the artisan. Whereas in other armies there are to be found in the ranks carpenters, smiths, tailors, and shoemakers, trades absolutely essential to the well being of an army: in the Turkish none such are to be found, and the want of men

knowing anything of these pursuits must seriously cripple an army engaged in active operations away from the resorts of tradesmen. Moreover, the benighted condition of Turkey generally as regards education acts prejudicially upon the army, in which there are few men fitted to become non-commissioned officers by even such simple knowledge as how to read and to write. But the Turkish private soldier is relatively vastly superior to his officers. The officers of the army form two almost distinct classes, the one composed of men risen from the ranks, the other of pupils of the war school. Amongst the officers from the ranks are to be found many thorough soldiers, with good knowledge of regular work, and of such tactics as are known in the Turkish army; but all the heart is crushed out of these men. No matter how good they may be as officers; no matter what service they may have seen, they can never hope to rise to a higher rank than that of captain; unless, either by bribery or family connection, they can ensure the good word of someone in high places. Promotion is said to be given regimentally up to the rank of captain; but this is often interfered with, and the promotion really rests in the hands of the commander of the corps, a Pasha, probably selected by the clique which governs at Constantinople, at the instance of some Court favourite. The officers from the ranks look down on the war school officers as unpractical and inexperienced; the officers from the war school, in return, consider them ignorant and unfitted to share their society. The junior officers fall back for companionship upon their non-commissioned officers and men, while their General or Colonel treats them as though they were menials. Young men of very few years' service, who have perhaps never seen a shot fired, and whose study of their profession has ceased on the day when they left the war school, are promoted to be field officers, and to the command of regiments and divisions.

From all this it naturally results that the Turkish army, excellent as is the material of its lower ranks, is a very inferior weapon for purposes of war. Drill is studied mechanically; battalions can manoeuvre fairly well upon a system of drill well enough suited for the days of the smooth-bore muskets, but tactics, in the true sense of the word, are not even understood. There is no practice in the duties of outposts and reconnoitring; and only last year, when a regiment of the Turkish Guard Corps was reviewed for my benefit in Crete, I was told by the officer commanding that they knew nothing of skirmishing, leaving that entirely to their rifle battalions. Yet skirmishing or fighting in open order is the whole life and soul of modern infantry tactics. Each of the corps has a preparatory school for the instruction of youths to become officers; but the education is of the most elementary description, and includes no military subject. There is a war school for the purpose of training officers for the army and the staff, in which four or five years are spent by the pupils; but the instruction is most inferior. There is also an artillery school, which, however, only turns out twenty pupils a year for the artillery and about three for the Engineers. The dress of the Turkish army is neat and serviceable, but of late the scarcity of money has prevented it being renewed in the bulk of the army. Infantry, cavalry, and artillery soldiers alike wear a fez, a blue jacket and waistcoat trimmed with red, scarlet sash round the waist, trousers wide to the middle of the calf and then tight as a gaiter, over which, in the cavalry, is drawn a boot of soft, untanned leather. The infantry wear gaiters and shoes, and in the field sandals of sheepskin laced over the feet. The infantry is armed with breechloading rifles—a considerable number with Sniders, some with Remingtons. A large supply of Henry-Martini rifles has lately been procured, but all the army is not yet supplied with them. Such a variety of weapons, of course, involves a great complication of ammunition, and is likely to lead to serious difficulties in war.

Captain W. S. Cooke's work on the Ottoman Empire and its Tributary States, published recently by the Intelligence Department, and from which most of this information has been obtained, places the normal strength of the infantry of the Turkish army at thirty-six regiments, each of three battalions and thirty-six battalions of rifles. Each battalion has eight companies, and a strength of about 800 men. There are fifteen Ihtiat battalions and about thirty other regular battalions furnished by various special levies, giving the infantry of the standing army a grand total of about 150,000.

The cavalry is normally composed of twenty-four Line regiments, each of six squadrons, and two Cossack regiments. It is all light cavalry. Two squadrons in each regiment are armed with the carbine and the remainder with lance and revolver. Each man carries a light curved sabre. The men are good horsemen, and there are plenty of good small horses in the cavalry; but, owing to want of money, or, worse still, to peculation and robbery, generally a large portion of each regiment is dismounted and another large portion mounted on wretched old screws. Of one regiment, says Mr. Vincent, it is narrated that, reduced to a few score mounted men, the Colonel, who was a Christian, after long solicitation obtained the money to buy horses. It was winter, and he thought that the money placed out at interest till the spring would enable him to buy more horses at a cheaper rate. But the Koran forbade the lending of money at interest, so it was locked up in the regimental chest. Meanwhile the complaints of the men, who had for a very long time been left without any pay, reached the ears of superior authority, and an order came that they should be paid from the grant for remounts. They were so paid, and the regiment of horse in due time became a regiment of foot. The famous dromedary corps, in which two mounted riflemen used to ride one dromedary, has been recently disbanded.

The artillery of the Turkish army is said to be the best arm of the service. There ought to be fifteen batteries, each of six guns, for each army corps; but a large portion of these does not exist, and of those which do exist their strength in peace is variable, depending apparently to a great extent upon the number of men and horses which the commander of the battery can suppress in order to put the money in his pocket.

So late as October of last year it is stated, on the authority of Captain Cooke, that muzzle-loaders and breechloaders, bronze and steel, rifled and smooth bore, French, Prussian, and English systems, were mixed up in the same regiment. I believe, however, that now nearly the whole of the artillery is composed of 4-pounder and 6-pounder Krupp guns. The great want seems to be a sufficiency of ammunition waggons, and an organised system of ammunition columns, both for artillery and infantry. The training of the field artillery is modelled upon the Prussian system, and the German instructors have displayed indefatigable energy in improving the service of this arm, fighting perpetually against jealousies, suspicion, corruption, and fanaticism. There is a great scarcity of horses suited for artillery draught purposes. The bulk of the artillery horses is purchased in Hungary. Breeding establishments for cavalry and artillery horses have from time to time been established; but here, as in everything else in Turkey, there is rottenness at the core, and the efforts to improve the breed of horses have met with no success.

The want of draught horses tells also with terrible effect upon the transport train, the greater part of which in Bulgaria and in Asia is composed of requisitioned country carts drawn by oxen. The organisation of this important branch is most defective; and when we remember that the Turkish army carries tents, and that the roads both in European and in Asiatic Turkey are of the worst description, it is not difficult to imagine the scene of confusion that must attend the advance of the Turkish army. What, then, must it be in a retreat? Great attention has been paid to the medical department of the army; but in time of war it is said that all foreign medical officers in the service of the Porte are to be removed; and I hear that the sanitary arrangements in the field are wretched.

The titles of the various ranks in the Turkish army are as follows:—The Commander-in-Chief is called the Serdar Ekrem, a Field-Marshal is a Mushir, a Lieutenant-General commanding a division a Ferik, a Major-General or Brigadier a Liva: all of these are Pashas. A Colonel is a Miri Alaj, a Lieutenant-Colonel a Kaimakam: these are Beys. A Major is an Alaj-Emini, a battalion commander is a Bimbashi, a company commander a Juzbashi, a Lieutenant a Mulazimi, a sergeant-major is a Bash-Ishaush, a sergeant a Sira-Ishaush, a corporal an Onbashi, a quartermaster-sergeant a Buljuk-Emini. I mention these names because I observe that the newspaper correspondents are very fond of giving to the uninitiated public these foreign titles without the necessary explanatory instructions.

It would be too great a farce to give the rates of pay of the Turkish army, because they are purely nominal, no man under the rank of a Colonel having for many years received any pay except by fitful instalments, the amount of which bears apparently no relation to that which by regulation he would be entitled to receive.

The rations of the Turkish soldiery are estimated on a very liberal scale even in time of peace, and in war they should be doubled; but the pervading system of peculation and corrupt contracts makes the food even in peace generally of wretched quality, while in war transport and commissariat arrangements are so defective that the Turkish soldier is almost forced to plunder. On the march each man carries some meal in a bag, and a small iron pan, in which he bakes cakes on arriving in camp. Want of transport prevents proper cooking utensils being carried.

I have failed to obtain any accurate information as to the details of organisation of the Turkish armies now in the field, but I have tolerably accurate information of the numbers as they stood towards the close of last month. In European Turkey the Turks had north of the Balkans about 128,000 men, distributed, roughly, as follow:—About 55,000 at Widdin, 10,000 at Rustchuk, 15,000 at Silistria, 17,000 in the Dobrudscha, 18,000 at Schumla, and 13,000 at Varna. In rear of the Balkans they had upwards of 30,000 more, the greater part of whom were at Sofia—a total, say, of 160,000 field troops at the outside. In Asiatic Turkey their numbers were, roughly, about 22,000 at Batoum, the same number at Kars, 12,000 at Ardahan, and nearly 20,000 at Erzeroum, with a detachment at Bayazid; in all about 76,000.

From what has been already said it is evident that a great number of these troops must be derived from the Redif and Mustahfiz, the chief part of whom had had no soldier's training until called up to arms in the presence of the enemy. Diminished contingents had even two years ago reduced the army far below its proper strength. The number of trained men passing into the reserves was very small, and the bulk of these reserves was consequently formed of untrained men. The strain upon the army caused by the insurrection in Bosnia and the Herzegovina still further reduced its strength; then came the campaign in Serbia, when wounds and sickness and want of sanitary arrangements told their tale, and the winter camps in snow and frost, where the Asiatic blood was frozen, and death reaped a plentiful harvest. Even now the armies of the Danube and of the Caucasus do not represent by any means all that Turkey has to provide against her foes. She has still to keep large forces in Bosnia and Herzegovina, in Thessaly and Epirus; in Crete alone she has 8000 men, and far more than that are required to deal with her dogged Montenegrin foes. It is easy to predict that if she is left without money and without friends, to face alone the hosts in arms against her, a worse fate will befall her armies than even that of being defeated in the field. They will die of starvation and exposure.

I have not yet spoken of the irregular troops. These may be subdivided, in general terms, into enlisted Bashi-Bazouks and volunteer Sipahis, Bedouins, &c. Bashi-Bazouks are raised at the outbreak of troubles from within or without. Orders are sent from Constantinople to the governors of vilayets or provinces to supply a certain number of men, and money is sent to them for the purpose. The usual thing then generally takes place: the governors apply to the chiefs of tribes, and between the governors and the chiefs the money is absorbed,

and the recruits get little or none. The Bashi-Bazouks furnish some small cavalry contingents, but are for the most part an irregular infantry, badly armed and badly disciplined, and only of use against insurgents, being quite unfit to take part in regular military operations in the open field. Without pay, and with only a bread ration, they maintain themselves by requisition and plunder; and it is not matter for surprise if they break loose from the control of their ignorant officers, who possess scarcely any authority over them, and pillage and burn on all sides. Under English officers, in the time of the Crimean War, contingents of Bashi-Bazouks became good soldiers; but then they were paid, and subjected to the restraints of discipline.

The volunteers, on the other hand, are in their way well-disciplined bodies. They are all cavalry, and for the most part are furnished by the Arabs. Their organisation is tribal, under their own chiefs, who maintain in the field that same rough discipline by which the tribes are governed at all times. Their services are only to be procured with the consent of their chiefs; and there is no doubt that, as irregular cavalry, for purposes of scouting, foraging, and harassing an enemy's convoys, they might render valuable service. It is yet to be seen what will be the result, as regards numbers of these volunteers, of that proclamation of a Holy War which will probably follow the defeat now, as I write, imminent, of the Turkish army in Asia. The greatest number of irregular troops that Turkey has ever raised was during the Crimean War, when some 10,000 of these volunteers took the field, and from 30,000 to 40,000 Bashi-Bazouks.

Another body of men which might render to the Ottoman Empire admirable service in case of war is the force of Zaptiehs, or police. These are well disciplined, and, to a great extent, recruited from the best troops of the regular army. The force of Zaptiehs, which has now been placed under the orders of Colonel Valentine Baker, is organised into companies, battalions, and regiments. Each battalion has one company mounted. The men of the regiment at Constantinople are specially selected to form a superior force for the capital, from the best non-commissioned officers of the army. It is supposed that the force of zaptiehs available in war throughout the empire will be nearly 30,000 strong. The pay of this force, like that of the troops, is heavily in arrear; their clothing is in many cases falling to pieces for want of renewal; but it is remarkable how few complaints are made by the Christian rayahs of Turkey of the conduct of these zaptiehs, who have almost every temptation to plunder.

A word about the generals and the staff of the Turkish army. The generals reach their position not by merit, but by interest. That special clique at Constantinople, small in numbers but large in power, which wields in its hands the fate of every Turk, makes or mars the career of every soldier. To be the relation of one of this powerful body, connected by blood or by marriage with a Grand Vizier or Minister, or even a superior official of one of the great departments of State, is sufficient to ensure rapid promotion in the army. Still better is it to be able to approach, either by means of money, or other method of less direct bribery, the ear of a favourite Sultana. Where governors of provinces, and even Cabinet Ministers, are appointed and dismissed through seraglio intrigue, it will easily be believed that the commands in the army are disposed of in a similar fashion. The constant removal of officials from their posts, in order to make room for some new favourite, is at the root of the maladministration of the Turkish provinces. The appointment of generals to commands, entirely apart from all consideration of their fitness for mili-

tary knowledge, must be fatal to the conduct of great operations of war. Even to the most honest man thus appointed to a post from which he knows he may be removed within a few weeks or months, simply because another has bribed and intrigued to obtain his place, there must be a great temptation to make the most he can out of the appointment during his tenure of office, more especially as he has probably, in one shape or another, paid heavily for his post. In these days war is no longer the mere clash of armed masses when bravery alone wins, but it is a science which demands to be as closely studied as any of the learned professions. The Turkish Pashas are an ignorant body of men; comparatively few of them know any language beyond their own. Works on the art of war are not translated into Turkish; and even if they were they would not be read. The constitutional laziness and apathy of the Turk would prevent his settling down to that deliberate study in his closet which is quite as necessary for the formation of a skilful general at the present day as the practical experience gained from commanding bodies of troops. The ideas of strategy of the Turkish generals are based upon the traditions handed down by their ancestors in days when railways and telegraphs did not exist, and when troops lived by the plunder of the countries upon which they made war. Their ideas of tactics have not advanced one step to meet the changes necessitated by modern arms. And, whereas in other nations where the generals may be but ill-skilled Princes, their deficiencies are supplied by the knowledge and ability of a highly-trained staff, in Turkey no such body exists. It is true that the War School receives from the army each year eight officers to be trained for the general staff; but such a number is utterly insufficient to supply the needs of the great Turkish army, and those officers who have been trained in the War School have, when their course of studies was completed, almost without exception, been sent to perform duties which are really those of engineers, while all the administrative work of the army has remained in the hands of the favourites of the Court party. In the War Office itself the most important business is in the hands of civilians, and the efforts made a short time back by Hussein Pasha to better this condition of things lasted but for a short time. Raised from the post of President of the General Staff to be Grand Vizier, he endeavoured to introduce reforms into the War Department and General Staff of the army; but the attempt to interfere with existing interests almost immediately brought about his fall; and so affairs go on, ever turning round and round in the same vicious circle. Nothing short of the utter break-up of the whole governing body at Constantinople could ever make of the Turkish army a body fit to cope with the other armies of Europe in modern scientific war.

From what has been above said, it may be judged that Turkey, if left alone to face her fate, has but small chance in the game of war. An army without generals capable of forming correct strategical plans, without officers capable of conducting the operations of war against a skilled enemy, with a system of tactics hopelessly unsuited to meet the terrible fire of breech-loading rifles and powerful rifled artillery, with transport and commissariat arrangements so defective that the first rude shock of battle must inevitably disorganise them completely, with regimental officers ignorant and altogether insufficient in numbers, and with but one single great power upon which to rest, the sobriety, hardihood, and courage, of its private soldiery, must, I venture to think, be shattered to pieces when it meets the armed hosts of Russia in the life-and-death struggle now about to take place. It is true that



A NOGAI TARTAR, OF ASIATIC RUSSIA.



A KARAKALPAK, OF ASIATIC RUSSIA.

the army of Russia is itself behind the age, that its soldiery, as a body, is far from possessing the keen intelligence of the French, the individual training and education of the German soldiery; it is true that its regimental officers are far from possessing that intimate knowledge of minor tactics, of outpost duty, of leading men over varied kinds of country, that Austria and Germany have so carefully inculcated in their lower commissioned ranks; it is true that only a small portion of the Russian staff has been educated as a staff should be in these days; it is true that financial embarrassments have more or less hampered the complete organisation of the Russian army, and that its arrangements of transport and supply are not so perfect as those of Russia's great Western neighbour; but in all that constitutes the strength of an armed nation Russia is immeasurably above the empire of the Ottoman Porte. By mere numbers alone she could crush her foe; but, even without bringing her full strength to bear, her superior military knowledge must be sufficient for the task. A united Holy Russia, viewing this campaign as a crusade against the infidel, advances to the attack of a foe whose country is torn by internal dissensions, whose arms are crippled by being forced to meet attacks from every side at a moment when her whole strength is required to face the vast legions gathering in her front. Yet Turkey will fight for God and the Faith; and woe be to her Christian subjects if the day comes when her last sparks of hope have expired, and the only flame left burning in her breast is that of wild, fierce fanaticism. It is on her own unprotected subjects that her deadliest blows are likely to fall rather than on the trained and united armies of the Czar.

Unless I fail to read the signs of the times, Turkey will have the Roumanian army to deal with as well as the Russian, in Europe, and it may therefore be interesting to give a short sketch of the constitution of the Roumanian forces. The Roumanian army is based upon a system of universal service, introduced by a law in 1863, and modified in 1872. The forces of "the United [Principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia," as Roumania is officially called in its relations with foreign Powers, consist of a standing army and reserve, a territorial army and reserve, a militia, and a national guard. The standing army is recruited by conscription, voluntary enlistments and re-engagements adding but small numbers to its ranks. The age of conscription is from twenty-one, the period of service eight years—four in the standing army, four in the reserve. The peace strength of the standing army in 1874 was about 18,000. In time of war it should be brought up to a strength of about 36,000 infantry, 1700 cavalry, and 96 guns. It is under the command of the reigning Prince, and is organised into four divisions, with the head-quarters respectively at Krajova, Bucharest, Galatz, and Jassy. As might naturally be expected in a country governed by a Hohenzollern, the system of training the army is purely Prussian, as are its tactics. It is curious to trace in Roumania the changes which the army has undergone according to the influence predominant in the Principalities. Before the Crimean War it was Russian in organisation and in dress. When Russia, defeated, was driven back, and the allied Powers gained the ascendancy, a French model was copied, and French officers and non-commissioned officers were introduced by Prince Couza; but since the accession of Prince Charles the French element has disappeared. Prussian officers have been brought to the Roumanian army as instructors, and Roumanians sent to Berlin to study Prussian military institutions. In dress alone the army has not followed the Prussian model, but the infantry wears the blue tunic and grey trousers of the Belgians, and a cap like the French kepi. The cavalry is dressed in scarlet, with busbies, and grey loose trousers thrust into the boots; the rifles and artillery in dark brown. The pay of the Roumanian army is comparatively high—almost approaching to the English scale of payment. As regards the material of the army, the rank and file is intelligent, and those drawn from the mountains are active and courageous; but good officers are sadly deficient, and the greatest difficulty is found in supplying the army. In all the public schools of the country the system of instruction is military; boys go through a military training without arms up to fifteen years of age, and subsequently under arms. Each school constitutes a military unit. There are regimental schools for the further education, both general and military, of the troops, and divisional schools for the higher training of non-commissioned officers aspiring to commissions. At Jassy there is a preparatory military school for the training of youths wishing to become officers, and their education is completed at a military high school at Bucharest. The staff of the army is trained at a war academy at the same place, and there is reason to believe that the staff of the army has reached a high standard of attainments. The regiments are completed from their peace to a war strength by calling in the reserves of the standing army.

The territorial army of Roumania is its most characteristic force. It dates back to the fifteenth century, and is the national force of the country. Before the year 1872 its infantry was called frontier troops, and performed the duties of police in the border districts; its cavalry was called Dorobanzi. When, in 1872, the army was reorganised this territorial force was reconstructed, and the name Dorobanzi, which was popular in the country, was given to the infantry; and the cavalry were christened Kallarashi. The budget of 1874 provided for a force of 40,000 Dorobanzi and 12,000 Kallarashi. Service in the territorial army is for the same period as in the standing army, but six years are active and only two in reserve. Men drawing the lowest numbers in the conscription are taken for the standing army, the higher numbers for the territorial army, the corps of which are localised. These local corps perform their services in a most curious manner, to which we know nothing similar in any other country. Each squadron or company is divided into four sections, and each section takes duty for a week at a time, so that the men are three weeks at home and one week on service. There are thirty-three territorial districts, each of which has a

battery of artillery, as well as a battalion of infantry, or a squadron of cavalry. The infantry perform frontier and garrison duty and act as police, the cavalry act as mounted police.

Since the year 1871 the territorial army has been combined with the standing army each autumn, and manoeuvres have been held upon a considerable scale. The marching and military knowledge displayed at these manoeuvres is said to be inferior, the officers especially knowing little of their work; but each year it has improved.

It appears, then, that Roumania can place in the field a standing army of about 36,000 infantry, 1700 cavalry, 96 guns, and a territorial army of 40,000 infantry, 12,000 cavalry, and apparently no guns; for our last information is to the effect that the batteries of artillery exist only on paper. Still a force of 76,000 infantry, 14,000 cavalry, and 96 guns is a most important factor in the solution of the Eastern Question. To this must be added the militia, composed of all men from twenty-one years of age who have not been drawn in the conscription, and of men from twenty-nine to thirty-seven who have served their turn in the standing or territorial armies. The militia is assembled by parishes once or twice in the year for periods of fifteen days; but it is evident that, containing so large a proportion of men who have never been subjected to discipline, it cannot be a very reliable force. The National Guard and rural levies comprise all men between thirty-seven and forty-six years of age; they do garrison duty in their towns and parishes when the standing and territorial armies are called into the field, either for manoeuvres or for war. The infantry of the Roumanian standing army is armed with the Peabody breech-loading rifle, the territorial army with the Prussian needle-gun; the Roshiori, or Red Hussars, of the standing army are equipped like German Hussars; the Kallarashi, who are mounted on small native-bred ponies, are equipped like Cossacks. The artillery has 4-pounder and 6-pounder breech-loading steel guns of the Prussian pattern, and a large number of bronze guns of the same pattern; it is said that one hundred guns on the old French muzzle-loading model were also in store a few months ago.

It is evident that if the Roumanian army takes part with Russia against Turkey—and it seems now tolerably certain that it will do so—it might, by crossing the Danube near the Serbian frontier, create a most powerful diversion in favour of the Russians, drawing off a large body of Turkish troops who would otherwise be available to oppose the passage of the Danube by the Russians. Still more would this be the case should the Serbian army again take the field. However difficult it might be to get together again the Serbian army, after its experience of last year's campaign, it can scarcely be doubted that Serbia could put into the field a force of 30,000 or 40,000 men, fairly armed and equipped, and, if not imbued with the most warlike spirit, at least capable of taking a part in harassing the smaller detached bodies of Turkish troops which are engaged in keeping down the flames of insurrection in the western provinces.

The military force of Montenegro can scarcely be counted upon for other than defensive operations. At present it engages the attention of a considerable body of Turkish troops; but, should Turkey take the only step which from the point of view of a strategist can give her any hope in this war—viz., the calling in of all her detachments and the concentration of her whole armed strength in one body to do battle with the Russians, the Montenegrin army would, of course, be free to cross its own frontiers. Even in that case, however, it can do little more than spread into the immediately surrounding Turkish provinces, for it possesses none of those organised administrative establishments which are absolutely necessary to enable any body of men to take the field as an army for offensive operations. The Montenegrin army is, in fact, a local militia—the men wear the national dress and provide for themselves in the field. Its organisation is very remarkable, the civil and military authority being combined under the same chiefs. It is calculated that each house can provide two soldiers, and five houses or ten men are placed under a desetar, or decurion; ten of these decurions, with their fifty houses, are placed under a stotinjar or centurion, and all the centurions of any one tribe, with their soldiers, are combined together under a captain. The tribes are called Plemena, and are again combined into Nahias. There are eight of these Nahias, which are each under the command of a Vojvoda. The eight Nahias are placed together under the chief command of a head Vojvoda, who is at once President of the Senate, Chief Administrator of the Government, and Commander-in-Chief of the military force. Every citizen is liable for service from his seventeenth to his fiftieth year, and not less than 25,000 men are enrolled. They have rifled mountain batteries and breech-loading rifles of various types; but, as already said, it is an army which can only be counted upon for defensive operations. Whatever instruction its officers and non-commissioned officers have had, the arms in the hands of the troops, the establishments for the powder factories and armoury at Rieka, have been paid for with Russian money. Russian non-commissioned officers are the instructors of the Montenegrin school of tactics, Russian workmen in the powder factories and armoury. Splendid in physique and manly in character as the Montenegrins are, they are still little better than savages in many respects. The unquestionable proofs which have been furnished that they have mutilated not only the dead but the living of their enemies scarcely entitles them to that pan of praise which Mr. Tennyson has so recently sung over them.

Large numbers of Albanians have recently taken advantage of such military instruction as can be obtained in Montenegro; and an Albanian insurrection would, of course, add considerably to the difficulties of the Porte. The tactics of Albanians and Montenegrins alike consist chiefly of the various stratagems of guerilla warfare. From all that I have read of their tactics, they seem to correspond almost exactly with those employed by the Kaffirs of South Africa. They endeavour to entice their enemy into the mountains; they hide in caves,

and ravines; they draw the enemy on by the retreat of their skirmishers before him, and, when he is led into the ambuscade prepared, from behind rocks and mountain peaks, from every coign of vantage, from every spot affording shelter, they pour down a fire delivered with all the accuracy due to their marvellous skill as marksmen. Captain Cooke gives the following description of the fighting qualities of the Albanians:—"They know thoroughly how to utilise ground, are acquainted with every stratagem of guerilla warfare, understand the art of deceiving the enemy by false marches, and falling upon him unawares, and will ably cover a wide front with a small body by occupying it with a network of small posts communicating with each other by single vedettes. When preparing an ambush, they will often leave their caps and cloaks at some prominent spot in an opposite direction to that in which the ambush is intended. Whether lying full length on the ground or aiming in a crouching position behind cover, they rarely miss their mark. The enemy's head is then cut off, salted, and planted on a pole in the village." The Mirdites, now or recently in insurrection against Turkey, are a clan of the Ghegs, one of the two principal Albanian tribes. They are most warlike people, all of the Roman Catholic religion.

The present aspect of the Eastern Question forbids us to leave the armaments of Greece out of our calculation, as it is certain that if the flames of war spread wider the Greeks must be among the first to take fire. The land force of Greece is but small, nor could it be otherwise in the bankrupt condition of the nation. Indeed, the country is but thinly populated, and can spare but few of its people from agriculture and industry. Every Greek is liable for service from his twentieth to his fortieth year; 13,000 young men every year attain the age of conscription, of whom about 2500 are taken for the Line and 2000 for the first reserve. A law, dated 1867, provides for an effective Line army of 31,000; 14,000 to be kept up in peace, the remainder to be in reserve. My latest information as to the actual numbers is for the year 1868, when only 8500 were under arms. Such troops as Greece keeps on foot are spread over a wide area, and there is no combination, except on paper, into brigades or divisions. The duties of the soldiers are essentially those of detachment. They act as police and suppress brigandage on the Continent, and garrison the Ionian Islands and the islands of the Archipelago. Hence they can know nothing of manoeuvres on a large scale, and they have no experience of war. So far as I can judge, they might collect 25,000 regular troops, with fifty guns, for war service, and, in 1869, when war with Turkey seemed probable, orders were issued for the enrolment of volunteer corps to the number of 30,000; but it seems improbable that such an army brought together for the first time in the presence of an enemy, without any experience of the operations of war on a large scale, with all its transport arrangements and commissariat crippled by want of money, could within any reasonable time be fit to take the offensive against the Turks. Should the Turks call in their detachments from the Greek provinces of Turkey, or leave there no troops but weak garrisons of fortresses; should Greece be thoroughly satisfied that Turkey is going to be so crushed that there is no chance of her making an offensive return when peace has been made with Russia, then the Greek army might very possibly invade Thessaly and Epirus, aid the insurrection which would inevitably take place, and annex those provinces to Greece.

It has been announced that one other country is to take part in the war. I have read that the Khedive is to raise his present contingent of 10,000 troops to 12,000, and they will be at the service of the Sultan for whatever purpose he may prefer. Egypt is bound to take this course by her convention with the Porte. The Egyptian army has suffered dreadfully from the effects of the Abyssinian war, and a force of this size is probably as much as the Khedive can send without altogether denuding his own country of troops. The infantry of the Egyptian army, recruited entirely from the class of fellahs, is unsuited for war in any but a tropical or sub-tropical country. The Arab, accustomed to the sandy plains of Egypt, or the warm Delta of the Nile, suffers severely when exposed to the cold of a winter in high latitudes, or in the mountains at a considerable distance above the sea. To him a winter campaign on the Danube, in the Balkans, or in the high table-lands of Armenia means disease and death. The Egyptian troops sent to suppress the insurrection in Crete in 1866 lost nearly half their strength from fever and from exposure to cold; yet the climate of Crete is one of the best in Europe, where there are no great extremes of either heat or cold. For work in his own country the Egyptian foot soldier is well suited. Lithe and active, possessing great marching power, living upon Indian corn, beans, and rarely a little soup made from meat, he requires but small commissariat. As regards his clothing, if his linen garments wear out, if the soles disappear from his boots, he has simply reverted to the condition in which he spent his life before he was enlisted into the army, when, barefooted and nearly naked, he tilled the field and earned by the sweat of his brow enough to keep soul and body together, and perhaps enough to save his back from the taxgatherer's lash. I believe the life of the Egyptian fellah to be almost the hardest in the world. It would be the hardest were it not for the glorious climate, which makes existence a pleasure, and the smallest pleasure a delight. The Egyptian infantry are well armed with Remington breech-loading rifles, which they keep clean and in good order (more than can be said of the Turk and his arms); but their officers, taken from the same class as the men, and not possessing any claims to the respect of the private soldier from superior birth, nor, indeed, often from superior education, are quite incapable of leading their men to the best advantage. I am not aware of what troops the Egyptian contingent sent to Turkey consists, but I am convinced that Egyptian cavalry and artillery would be of little service. The cavalry is very inferior, and in the batteries of artillery which I have seen in camp the horses were in the most miserable condition, the harness a mass of patchwork, and the guns dirty and ill-kept.

The best officers in the Egyptian army are a few of their generals and colonels who are Americans. After the great civil war in America, when the armies of the south were disbanded, several officers of considerable ability offered their services to the Khedive. To General Stone, the Khedive's able chief of the staff, are due whatever reforms have been introduced into the Egyptian army. He has inaugurated excellent educational establishments to train up non-commissioned officers and officers, and he is combating with all his strength the inertness and apathy of the fellah class and the corruption which abounds throughout official life in Egypt. But the fellah is not by nature a warrior; he is by nature a tiller of the soil, and no Egyptian troops will ever stand their ground against an equal number of Russians.

I now propose to give some description of the probable theatres of war in Europe and in Asia. I will begin with that in Europe. By the Treaty of Paris in 1856 the southwestern boundary of Russia in Europe was contracted. Russia gave up that portion of Bessarabia formerly possessed by her, which touched upon the northern bank of the Danube; and her frontier line, instead of following the course of the river Pruth to the Danube, was made to quit the Pruth at a point some thirty miles south of Jassy, and recede further and further from that river till, at another point about thirty miles north of the Danube, it was made to turn at right angles towards the seacoast—a wedge-shaped piece of land being thus left between her frontier and the Pruth, and a long narrow strip between her frontier and the Danube. These pieces of territory were handed over to Moldavia. The protectorate hitherto enjoyed by Russia over the principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia was abolished, and the sovereignty of the Sultan over them was established. The right of investiture of the Hospodars of these two principalities remained with the Sultan, and they were to pay an annual tribute to him of four millions of piastres. It was not till the end of the year 1861 that the principalities were united under Prince Couza, who gave them the title of Roumania. In 1866 he was forced to abdicate, and in the same year Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen was proclaimed reigning Prince. After considerable difficulties the Porte recognised him, and he received his investiture at Constantinople from the hands of the Sultan himself. Roumania is still bound to pay her tribute of £36,000 a year to the Porte. The country thus newly formed has for its southern boundary the Danube, which separates it from Turkey and Servia, for the northern boundary of Wallachia and the western boundary of Moldavia the Carpathian Mountains separating it from Austro-Hungary, and for its eastern boundary that Russian frontier already described. The southern portion of the principality consists of the low plain of the Danube; the northern portion of Wallachia and the western portion of Moldavia of broken country formed by the spurs of the Carpathian Mountains, which descend and become gradually lower till they are lost in the plains of the Danube and the Pruth. That portion of the plain nearest the Danube consists chiefly of extensive swamps or wide tracts of forests and brushwood. Wallachia possesses few good roads. Throughout its whole length, from Bucharest to the Servian frontier, it is traversed by one well-made route, while another, fairly passable, runs along the bank of the Danube. At right angles to these, roads lead down from the passes of the Carpathian Mountains and to the passages of the Danube. In Moldavia the whole of the western portion of territory is so traversed by the spurs of the mountains that no road can here run from north to south; but at the foot of the spurs there runs a main road down the valley of the Sereth, from a point due west of Jassy to Fockschan, whence it curves round to Bucharest, another branch leading to Galatz. A second road runs more or less parallel to this from Jassy to Tekutch, while roads run down by both banks of the Pruth to Galatz and Reni. The Russo-Roumanian frontier is crossed near Jassy by a railway from Kischeneff. This railway runs west for some distance, and then down the valley of the Sereth till it strikes the Danube at Galatz; thence it passes along the bank of the Danube to Ibraila, crossing the Sereth by the Barbosch bridge; it then runs to Bucharest, where it divides into two parts, one running due west to the Danube, on the Servian frontier at Turn-Severin, the other running south to Giurgevo, opposite the Turkish fortress at Rustchuk. This railway and the roads running parallel to it cross a great number of streams. The streams which feed the Sereth and the Pruth are crossed in Moldavia, while in Wallachia the roads and railway traverse an innumerable quantity of affluents of the Danube, which descend from the Carpathian Mountains. The movement of troops throughout the whole country is in consequence entirely confined to the roads, the streams which have to be traversed, the masses of forest, and the swampy banks of the rivers rendering all movement off the roads impossible. The river Pruth is bridged at three points in Roumania—at Skuljany, at Leovo, and near the Danube west of Reni. From Skuljany, where both road and railway cross it to the Danube, it is navigable for large vessels. From the southern portion of Russian Bessarabia to the Danube at Reni, Ismail, and Kilia, there are roads available for troops.

That southern portion of Bessarabia in which the Russian army of the Danube was cantoned before the declaration of war partakes very much of the nature of the adjacent steppe land, being barren, and possessing for the most part only villages of a very poor description. Here the Russian army during the past winter appears to have suffered from cold and exposure, and the climate of the southern portion of Roumania is not by any means so wild as one might expect from its latitude. On the one side, in winter, bitter winds sweep down from the snow-clad Carpathians; on the other side still more bitter winds sweep across from the Russian steppes. In winter the thermometer often falls below zero, and the Danube has its navigation obstructed by ice. In spring the weather is uncertain, cold and heat alternating for a short time, till there is a sudden burst into summer, when the heat of the days is intense, though the nights are very cold. The autumn is the most pleasant season, and the climate is not, on the whole,

unhealthy, with the single exception of the great liability to aguish fevers, entailed by the swamps which border all the streams and the bank of the Danube itself. It is probable that troops obliged to remain for any length of time on the banks of the Danube would have large numbers of men invalided, and considerable mortality from this cause.

For the purposes of the present campaign it is not necessary to describe the Danube above the point where it issues from the famous Iron Gates between Austria and Servia. There the perpendicular cliffs narrow the rapid stream to little more than fifty yards in breadth, and from this point for the 650 miles of its course to the Black Sea it separates Roumania on its left from Bulgaria on its right bank. The characteristics of the two banks are that the Roumanian bank throughout the whole of this space is flat, nowhere more than about fifty feet above the level of the Black Sea, and in places very marshy, the marshes sometimes extending into lakes. The right bank, on the other hand, is often 300 feet in height, seldom falling below 100 feet, and the country on this side gradually rises to the lower ridges of the Balkans. The valley of the Danube is, in fact, bordered by the Carpathians on the left and the Balkans on the right; but while the Carpathians recede far back and leave a flat, wooded, marshy plain between them and the river, the Balkans approach nearer to the river, and thrust down their spurs to its very brink. Looking at the map, we see between the Danube where it begins to run northwards about Silistria and the Black Sea, a strip of country containing at its northern part the Delta of the Danube, and traversed through its centre by one main road, leading from Tulitchea to the Balkans, near Varna. This is the Dobrudscha, a barren inhospitable country, the chosen home of fever. It is generally covered with a thick growth of brushwood and willow; swamps and bogs abound, but where cultivated it is fertile. The Roumanian plain on the north bank of the Danube possesses one of the richest soils of Europe. The earth is black and strongly impregnated with saltpetre, and the numerous rivers and streams afford ample facilities for irrigation. Yet vast areas of land remain uncultivated, and such agriculture as there is of a primitive description. The perpetual fear under which Roumania has laboured of being converted into a battle-field for hostile Turks and Russians is not calculated to improve agriculture or any other industry, or to encourage the outlay of capital upon buildings or improvements which at any time, for many years past, have been liable to be devastated by human locusts. Yet Roumania has produced a vast amount of corn, not only enough for its own consumption, but sufficient to export very large quantities for the European market; while numerous herds of cattle and sheep graze upon the rich pasture lands for which these provinces are famous. The Russian army then, entering Roumania, is sure to find considerable supplies of meat and corn. If, as we have every reason to believe will be the case, the progress of the Russian troops is so conducted as not to interfere with agriculture, and if supplies are paid for as it is promised they shall be, and if the whole of Roumanian mankind is not taken away from its occupations for military service, the whole of the corn crop of Roumania, which would otherwise be exported this autumn, should be available for the Russian troops. At the present season of the year, however, the corn supply would be less than at any other, for last year's harvest is long since exported, and the stores in the country are nearly exhausted by the end of the winter. Bulgaria, too, on the opposite bank of the Danube, produces a large amount of corn for export, though not in such quantities as Roumania. The roads in Bulgaria are plentiful, but bad. In the spring months the heavy rainfall on the northern slopes of the Balkans renders them all but impassable. This, however, is the time when the rich grasses afford ample supplies of forage for horses; but when the hot summer comes it scorches up all herbage, and by July the streams are dry and the country almost a desert. July is, however, the season of harvest, both for Roumania and Bulgaria; so that by the time that green fodder is gone there should be ample supplies of corn. The northern slopes of the Balkans are thickly wooded, and the low ranges of hills or terraces lying in front of them are intersected by numbers of streams flowing through deep ravines, and in places swamps and deep ground are to be met. The soil is heavy, and movement is much impeded by masses of thick brushwood, so that here, as in Roumania, the movement of troops is confined almost exclusively to the roads.

It remains now to speak of the passages of the Danube and of the Balkans. It is a curious fact that different writers assign very different degrees of width to the Danube—for instance, Moltke and Chesney—but I believe its average width from Widdin to Hirsova to be about 1500 paces. By reason of the numerous extensive morasses, lakes, and forests on its left bank, an army approaching it from the north is compelled, if it seeks to cross, to effect the passage at certain known parts. At most of these points of passage towns have sprung up on both banks of the river, and to these points only are there roads on either bank. As no army of any size can operate except where there are good roads, the points where passage is possible are marked by these roads. Descending the Danube, we find that a road runs along its left bank more or less near to the river throughout its whole course from Widdin to Kilia. The river about Widdin affords good ground for passage. Opposite to Widdin, which is strongly fortified, and upon which the Turks have of late been engaged, is Kalafat, said to be now occupied by the Roumanian troops. The next important point of passage is opposite to the Turkish town of Rahova, where, in one of the former wars between Russia and Turkey, a Russian force of 28,000 troops was thrown over the river: a road leads to this point from Crajova. The next points of passage are opposite Nicopolis, at Islacz and Turnu, to which roads lead down both banks of the Aluta. At Simnitza, opposite the Turkish town of Sistova, there is a good point of passage, but no road to it, except one leading along the river bank. Next comes by far the most important passage of the river, that between Giurgevo on the

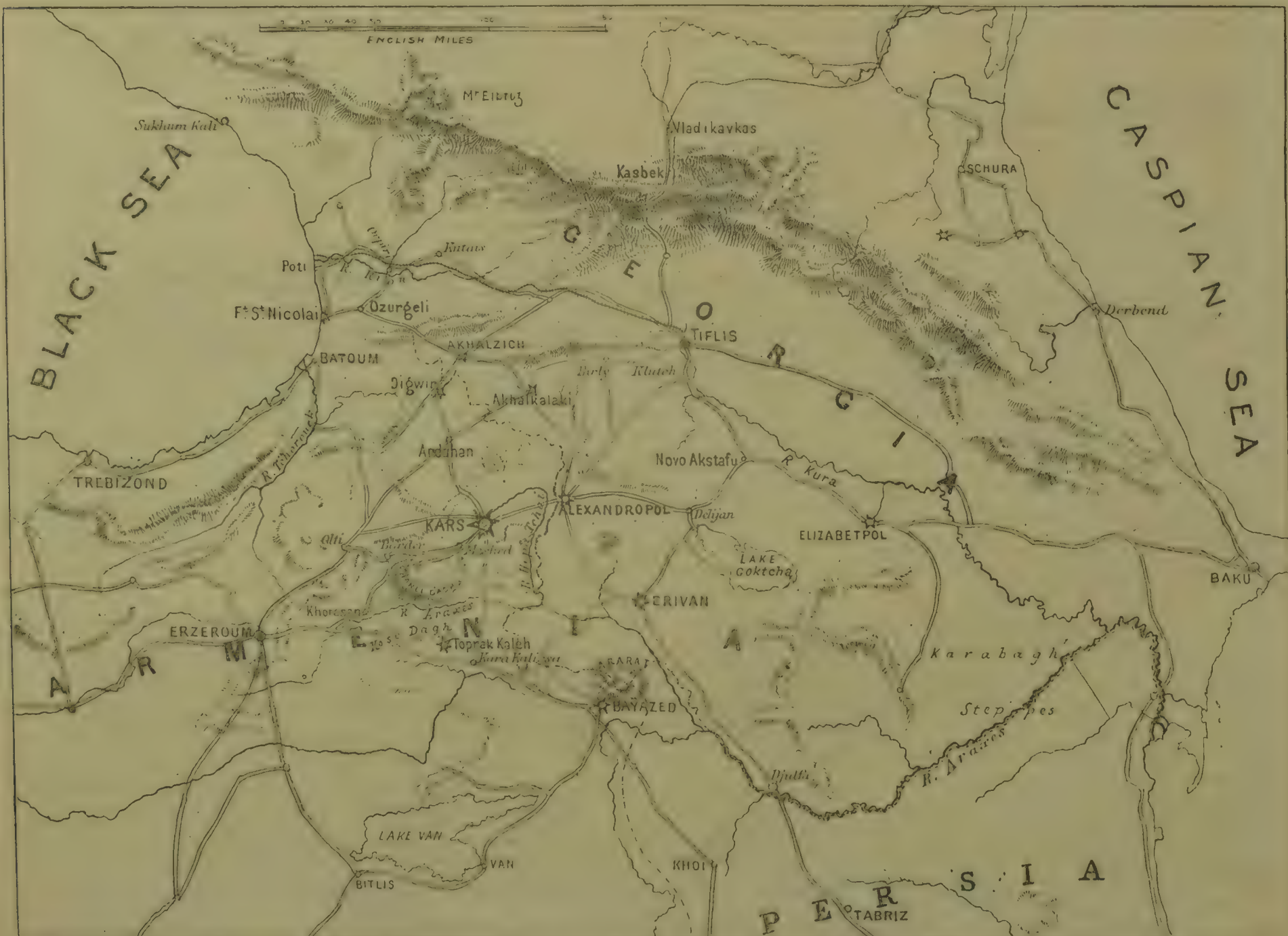
left and Rustchuk on the right bank. I say by far the most important passage, because Giurgevo is the terminus of the Roumanian line of railway, and Rustchuk is the terminus of the Turkish line which leads past Schumla to Varna. Here the left bank is comparatively free from marshes, and the stream is scarcely 1000 paces wide; but Rustchuk is strongly fortified. Its defences stand on a series of hills: they have been recently greatly strengthened, and a number of heavy Krupp guns have been mounted. The defences of Rustchuk, on high ground, entirely command Giurgevo and the left bank of the river. The next passage, and also one of great importance as being within easy reach of the railway at Bucharest and at Giurgevo, and having also water communication by a navigable stream from the railway between Bucharest and Giurgevo, is Oltenitza, opposite the Turkish town of Turtukai. The banks here afford firm ground. The Turks have no permanent works at Turtukai, and a good road leads from the latter place to Rustchuk. Next there is a passage at Kalaratsh, opposite Silistria. My readers will not have forgotten the famous story of the defence of Silistria in 1853, where Butler and Nasmyth earned their heroes' laurels. Since the days of the Crimean War it has been considerably strengthened. It stands on a projecting height, and entirely commands the opposite bank, the width of the river being only about 1000 paces. Immediately below Silistria the river is broken up by a number of islands, and from this point on to Hirsova the left bank of the river borders a wide tract of marshy ground quite impracticable for troops. At Hirsova the Turks have some slight works, but not formidable, relying more upon the nature of the opposite banks, as the river can only be approached here in the dry season. In 1809 a Russian force did cross at this point. A mass of wide marshy ground again borders the river on its left bank the whole way to Ibraila, a town which the Russians have already occupied. The river is here broad, but much intersected by islands; and nearly opposite to Ibraila, on the Turkish bank, stand on a hill some slight works at Matchin. Railway and road run side by side from Ibraila to Galatz, and here there is firm ground on the Roumanian side, and the marshes are on the Turkish side. These marshes are not practicable for troops until the middle of June at the earliest, by which time they are dry and are sufficiently baked by the sun to be passable by artillery. The conditions are almost exactly similar at Reni, at Ismail, and at Kilia, with the addition that at these two latter places more than one arm of the Delta of the Danube would have to be crossed.

Now, putting aside the increased difficulty of passage on account of the Turkish fortifications, there can be no doubt whatever that if their object were merely to cross the Danube and operate on Turkish soil as near to the Balkans as possible, with a view to the subsequent passage of the Balkans, the Russian troops would select Rustchuk as their point of passage, because it is the only place upon the river except Galatz to which both road and railway conduct. The enormous and incalculable advantage of a railway for bringing up those masses of stores which must accompany the march of a large army makes it almost a certainty that the Russians will leave no stone unturned to capture Rustchuk, and so have free railway communication to Giurgevo and a free passage of the river at that point. It is quite true that Galatz is 150 miles less distant from the Russian frontier than Giurgevo; but those 150 miles, if not traversed on the north bank of the Danube, will have to be traversed on the south bank, in an enemy's instead of in a friendly country, in the barren and unhealthy Dobrudscha, without the use of any railway; and to an army of such strength as the Russian force operating in Roumania a railway is an absolute necessity. I therefore believe that, whatever steps the left wing of their army may take about Galatz, the passage of the main Russian body will be effected somewhere in the neighbourhood of Rustchuk.

I come next to speak of the passage of the Balkans. The Balkans may be turned by the coast-line; but the road is hemmed in between the mountains and the sea, of which the Turks have the command, and is in many places impracticable for guns; so that this road, which passes, moreover, through Varna, a fortified town, may be for all purposes of Russian attack dismissed from consideration. The nearest passage to the sea by which the Russians can move is one that passes through Pravady. This is known as the pass of Nadir-Derbend, and the road through it leads upon Aidos. Between Pravady and the southern opening of the pass either of two roads may be taken. One passes through a ravine not more than a hundred paces wide, and inclosed by almost perpendicular walls several hundred feet high; the other is a little less difficult; but both are severe passes, though they have repeatedly been used for artillery. The next pass is that of Schumla, which is the most important fortified place in the Balkans. From what I can learn, it appears that the intrenched camp of Schumla is fortified by a number of earthworks thrown up on a circle of hills, in advance of the northern outlet of the pass. With true Turkish carelessness, the railway from Varna to Rustchuk has not been made to pass through the defensive works of Schumla, but leaves them about ten miles on the flank. Roads from Silistria, Turtukai, and Rustchuk converge upon Schumla; and from Schumla itself, which is far advanced on the northern slopes of the hills, two separate approaches lead to the pass at Tshalikavik, whence the road winds through deep, precipitous ravines, finally descending through a broad, well-cultivated valley. On account of the strength of the intrenched camp of Schumla, this pass would be the most difficult for the Russians to force; and it is more than probable that they would invest Schumla and cross the Balkans by another pass. The next pass is one of considerable natural difficulty, by Osman Bazar to Kasan, whence two roads branch off to Karnabad and Selimno; further to the westward again is the pass known as the Iron Gate, leading from Tirnova to Selimno; while another pass, called the Shipka Pass, leads from Tirnova to Kezanlik. Upon Tirnova road converge from Silistria, Rustchuk, Sistova, and Nicopolis; it is,



THE THEATRE OF WAR IN EUROPE.



THE THEATRE OF WAR IN ASIA.



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE SEAT OF WAR.



HIS IMPERIAL MAJESTY SULTAN ABDUL HAMID II.

in fact, a junction of roads leading from a large number of passages of the Danube, and, as two roads lead from it through the Balkans, it is not improbable that this route will be selected by the main Russian army for the passage of the Balkans. The distance from Rustchuk to Tirnova is about sixty miles. Further west again, there is a difficult steep pass over rugged heights, leading from Lovatz to Tatar-Bazardjik, in the valley of the Maritza; and, further west again, the great road leading by Sofia, the main Belgrade and Constantinople road, turns the Balkans on the west. It is guarded by forts in advance of Tatar-Bazardjik at the celebrated Trajan's Gate. It is scarcely

to be expected, however, that the Russians will make so long a detour as to traverse the whole length of Wallachia and cross the Danube near the Servian frontier for the sake of using this road. It is far more likely that they will endeavour, if any attempt is made to cross the Balkans, to force them at a more central point.

As a question of strategy, it is considered that the best method of defending a mountain range with a certain number of well-defined passes is to hold all the passes with small detachments of observation, to delay the enemy's passage through whichever of them he may select as long as possible,

and to keep the bulk of the defending army concentrated in a central position in rear, ready to fall upon the head of the enemy's column as it debouches from the pass on to the plains in rear. It must be an operation of many days to pass a large army through any pass upon a single road; and therefore time is given, if the dispositions have been skilfully made, for the defending army to advance to the attack before the whole of the invader's forces can be brought to oppose it. Now, the passes available to the Russians, from that by Pravady on the east to Tirnova on the west, all debouch upon a line of about eighty miles in length, from Aidos on the east

to Eski Saghra on the west. These two points, Aidos and Eski Saghra, are connected by a good road; and Jamboly, a central position about equidistant from the two flanks, directly commands the outlets of the central passes, and is in communication by railway with Adrianopol and Sofia. From the point of view of a strategist, therefore, it would appear that this is the point where the bulk of the Turkish army should be concentrated for the defence of the Balkans. If once the Turks are defeated here in the open field, it is scarcely worth considering what other positions there are between the Russians and Constantinople. From Rustchuk to Adrianople by the Schumla or Tirmova passes is a distance of about 200 miles; from Adrianople to Constantinople is about 150 miles.

Allowing for all opposition, the distance from the Danube to Constantinople could be traversed by a well-found army in less than two months.

The theatre of war in Asia next demands examination. The great barrier of the Caucasus, which naturally divides Europe from Asia, has for many years ceased to form the frontier of Russia, and the mountain chain itself, with some hundreds of miles of its southern slopes, is now in Russian hands. Georgia and part of Armenia have come beneath the sovereignty of the Czar, and are pierced with roads available for military operations. The conquest of these provinces was no light task; but that dogged obstinacy with which Russia carries on her unchanging policy of annexation has triumphed over all obstacles, and, little by little, Russia has extended her territory southwards towards the Mediterranean. The great barrier of the Caucasus once overstepped, natural frontiers have ceased to exist, and the further progress of Russian conquest is but a question of time. All the Caspian Sea except its southern shore is now in Russia's hands. Her flotilla there is steadily increasing; naval stations are being constructed; a little further development of railways and the Caspian will become a Russian lake, for Persia is already, like a ripe plum, ready to drop into the mouth of the Czar. The Trans-Caucasian provinces of Russia can be approached in three different directions: by the seaports in the Black Sea, the chief of which are Sukhum-Kali and Poti; by the seaport of Baku, on the shore of the Caspian; and by that one road which alone crosses the mountains of the Caucasus. This road traverses the Kasbek Pass, and throughout the whole of the winter months is impassable from deep snow. The seat of government is at Tiflis, a town of about 100,000 inhabitants, mostly Georgians and Armenians, where are the arsenal and chief military stores of the province. Tiflis is not fortified. It lies immediately south of the Kasbek Pass, by which it can be approached from the railway station of Vladikavkas, by a road of about 140 miles in length, crossing over the mountains at a height of 8000 ft. above the sea. This road is known as the Georgian military road, and is always kept in good order, being repaired as soon as the winter's snows have cleared off. From it a railway runs to Rostov and Taganrog, in the Sea of Azov; and this, though a badly-laid line, will be the chief Russian line of communication with the interior during the present summer. From Tiflis to the seaport of Poti, a distance of nearly 200 miles, there runs a single line of railway, and beside it a road, which has fallen somewhat out of repair since the railway was built, crossing numerous streams. Poti is a very inferior port. There is a bar at the mouth of the river Iton, and ships have to lie in the open roadstead, and their cargoes must be unloaded into barges for discharge. A belt of swampy forest runs inland for some distance, and the place is the haunt of fever and ague. Thielmann says that no European has passed a night there and been spared by the fever. About sixty or seventy miles north of Poti is the seaport of Sukhum-Kali, where there is a better anchorage, though entirely unsheltered from the south wind. It is a more healthy situation than Poti, and would probably long ago have been united by railway to Tiflis were it not that Russia has not considered it worth while to spend money for this purpose, as she has always intended to annex the nearer and still better Turkish port of Batoum, lying just south of her frontier. From Tiflis to Baku, the Caspian seaport of Trans-Caucasia, there is a good post-road, about 350 miles in length. Baku is not a large town having a population of only about 12,000, situated in the midst of a barren and desolate country, where vast naphtha-beds yield their contents by means of springs, the preparation of naphtha forming the chief industry of the place. Baku has a sheltered harbour, and is distant a little more than 500 miles from Astrachan and the mouth of the Volga.

Russian Trans-Caucasia contains very varied natures of country. The plain of the river Rion, which runs into the Black Sea at Poti, is chiefly clothed with dense timber forests, and is feverish and unhealthy. The basin of the river Kura, which runs into the Caspian, contains in its upper part fertile valleys, but its lower part, as well as the lower basin of the Araxes, flows through barren steppes, which can only be cultivated by means of a careful irrigation. The soil, except that of the steppes, is of a rich character. The country rises towards the southern slopes of the mountains in a succession of terraces, all cultivated. Corn of various kinds is grown, there are rich pasture lands, cotton and flax have been successfully cultivated, and the manufacture of tobacco is on the increase. Rich mineral deposits have also been found, chiefly of copper, but also of iron and of silver. The following description of the Russian frontier line is taken from a letter which appeared last February in the *Daily Telegraph*, and conveys a correct idea of the country through which the frontier passes:—"Let us look at the new frontier made by man that has taken the place of one marked out by God. Standing upon Mount Ararat, we are on the spot where the kingdoms meet of Sultan, Shah, and Czar. All around us is a tangled mass of mountains, upheaved by some later convulsions than that which built the great Caucasian range. At our feet, as we look northwards, flows in a south-easterly direction the River Araxes, forming, till near its junction with the Kura, on the great Mogan plain, the Russo-Persian frontier,

But the delta of the Kura is all in Russian hands, and her territory thrusts down a long wedge into Persia along the Caspian shore. Along the northern bank of the Araxes, for nearly one hundred miles from Djulfa, runs the main road from Tabriz, in Persia, to Erivan, a Russian fortified town due north of us as we stand on Ararat, and thence again north to Tiflis, the seat of Government of the province. Due west, for some fifty miles, the Russo-Turkish frontier follows the crest of the Ararat range, turns northwards, crosses the Upper Araxes Valley, follows the valley of the Arpa Tchai, and then, ascending another mountain range, runs north-west along its crest to the Black Sea. This coterminous boundary of Russia and of Turkey is some 350 miles in length. On both sides of this Russian frontier lies a strangely tangled web of mountains and of streams, in which at first it seems hard to introduce any idea of order, such as nature generally shows in all her schemes. Instead of rivers rushing down at right angles from the mountains, we find them running parallel. The Rion, which flows into the Black Sea at Poti, and the Kura, which falls into the Caspian, run at the foot of the great Caucasian range. In Turkish Armenia the mountains seem to form a network, in which the streams are led into strange courses. Here we have the upper waters of the Euphrates flowing at first due west, as though they were going to empty themselves into the Mediterranean, while in between the eastern and western sources of the Euphrates the head waters of the Araxes and of the Chorokh flow eastward; yet the one finds its outlet in the Caspian, the other in the Euxine. Clearly this must be a most difficult country for military operations, affording obstacles of a serious nature at almost every step." I have already pointed out that there are three means of communication between the interior of Russia and these Trans-Caucasian provinces—by the Black Sea and Poti, by the Vladikavkas railway and the Kasbek Pass to Tiflis, and by the Volga and the Caspian to Baku. As soon as the present war was declared, Russia lost the command of the Black Sea route; and she is therefore now restricted to the pass over the mountains, which will be closed against her on the approach of winter, and the Caspian route, which is also likely to be blocked by ice. Thus, if the war endures longer than the present summer, and Russia is still blockaded on the Black Sea, she will have throughout the winter no means of renewing supplies and stores for those provinces. From Poti through Tiflis to Baku runs a great main road, nearly parallel with the chain of the Caucasus. It is the spine of Trans-Caucasia; from it on one side extend vertebræ in the shape of roads running at right angles from this main road to the Turkish frontier. Commencing from the Black Sea coast, one such road follows the coast-line from Poti to Fort St. Nikolai, a small work which has been bombarded by the Turkish ships since the opening of the campaign. From Orpiri, a village about forty miles inland from Poti, a good post-road descends to Ozurgeti, and is connected with Fort St. Nikolai. It is from this post that a Russian reconnaissance advanced in the direction of Batoum at the opening of the campaign, and was driven back by the Turkish troops posted on the Tchourouk. The next road of any importance to the frontier is one which, starting from a point about half-way between Tiflis and Poti, follows the valley of the Upper Kura to Akhaltsich. This is a town of some 14,000 inhabitants, close to the Turkish frontier. Sir Arthur Cunynghame, who visited it in 1873, says that the fortifications, though impregnable against insurrectionists, would be untenable against modern artillery, and that it is commanded from heights close at hand. From Tiflis a road runs to Achalkalaki, a distance of more than one hundred miles, passing on the road the village of Biely Klutch, to which a part of the Tiflis arsenal has recently been removed. Achalkalaki, which was once a fine city, is now but a poor village. It has, however, a fort of very secondary importance, also commanded from hills at short range. From Tiflis there are several routes leading to the great Russian frontier fortress of Gumri or Alexandropol, and through this passes the main high road into Asiatic Turkey. The fortress here is separated from the town by a ravine, and has lately been considerably strengthened by the Russians. Sir Arthur Cunynghame says that a number of Krupp guns of very large calibre have been mounted there; but he adds that it is apparently capable of escalade from the towns and ravines on the eastern side. Alexandropol has been converted by the Russians into a great frontier dépôt. Here was collected the force which, under General Melikoff, has advanced on the main road against Kars, and it will doubtless be the advanced base of operations in the Russian campaign against Turkey. By far the best though the longest way from Tiflis to Alexandropol is to follow the main road towards Baku until Novo-Akstafa is reached, thence to turn off on the post-road to Delijan, where the road branches, one good route leading to Alexandropol, another to Erivan. The distance from Tiflis to Alexandropol by this route is about 170 miles. There is a shorter road, but not so good, only about 120 miles in length. Erivan is situated some forty miles back from the Turkish frontier, and from it runs the great post road to Tabriz, in Persia, and thence to Teheran. Erivan is a town of some 12,000 inhabitants, mostly Armenians, and has one of those old-fashioned fortifications which depend chiefly for their strength upon the thickness of their walls. From Erivan some inferior roads lead over the Ararat range to Bayazed, a fortified place situated in the extreme angle of the Turkish frontier, under the slopes of Mount Ararat; and by these roads Russian troops have advanced, and Bayazed has surrendered without a blow, its garrison falling back in the direction of Erzeroum. A road running parallel to the frontier, in many places very bad, but still available for troops, connects Fort St. Nikolai, Akhaltsich, Achalkalaki, and Alexandropol with villages at the foot of the Ararat range. The whole of the country lying between the great Poti-Baku road and the Turkish frontier is intersected by ravines and streams.

Let us now pass to the Turkish territory. Standing back about 180 miles from the Russian frontier at Alexandropol, with a mountainous, broken country between, is Erzeroum, the

capital of Turkish Armenia, with a population of about 40,000 souls. It is far better built than most Turkish towns, its houses being mostly constructed of stone, and some of them of handsome appearance. It stands on a small hill at the foot of a mountain in an extensive plain, and contains no less than seventy mosques and three Christian churches. It is well supplied with fountains, whose water is conducted to them by conduits from the hills. It is surrounded on north, south, and east by high mountains, on the slopes of which the Turks have constructed earthworks; but it is not strongly fortified. From Erzeroum as a centre, roads branch out to all parts of the frontier from Bayazed to Batoum; the two chief roads being that leading through Kars, which is about forty miles from Alexandropol and 140 from Erzeroum, and that leading by Kara Kalissa to Bayazed, distant about 180 miles. The first of these roads—namely, that by Kars—divides at Mesched, about sixteen miles west of Kars, whence two separate routes lead to Erzeroum—one by Bardez and Olti, and one by Khorasan; another and more northern road leads direct from Kars to Olti, without going near Bardez; a road also leads from Kars to Kara Kalissa, on the Bayazed-Erzeroum road. From Olti, which is about seventy miles from Erzeroum, a road leads to Ardahan, some twenty miles from the frontier, opposite Achalkalaki; and another road to the frontier opposite Akhaltsich; another, again, to Batoum. Thus, if the Turks take up a position between Olti and Khorasan, they will cover all the roads leading from the Russian frontier upon Erzeroum. From Khorasan to Olti would be about four marches. In front of this line there is a chain of mountains called the Soghanli-Dagh, covered with forests of Scotch firs and intersected by streams running in deep gullies, but penetrated by numerous tracks, some of them even passable for wheels, by which an advancing army is enabled to evade the main roads. It was in this manner that Paskievitch turned the Turkish position when they attempted to defend these mountains in 1829.

And now a word as to the Turkish defences on the frontier. And first Batoum. Batoum, though exposed to the north, is a good harbour, sheltered from the south winds by high hills, with deep water close to the shore. It is about thirty miles by land from the Russian frontier, and is strongly defended both by land and by sea. The value to any nation whose territories border the Black Sea is great; for it is the only good port on the east coast south of the Sea of Azov. Doubtless, if it were in the hands of the Russians, it would, long ere this, have been in railway communication with Tiflis; and we can well understand their anxiety to obtain it. Thielmann relates that the wretched port of Poti owes its prosperity, if not indeed its very existence, to a slip of the pen; "for, when Turkey ceded to Russia by the Treaty of Adrianople the territory between Kars and the sea, the boundary line was by general consent drawn to run down the river Tschorokh, which arrangement would have brought over to the Russian side the advantageous harbour of Batoum. It was, however, discovered, but not until after the ratification of the treaty of peace, that the river Tscholock, which runs about eighteen miles on this side of Batoum, had been inserted in the treaty as the boundary line. Batoum was lost, and Poti was accepted in its stead." The next fortified place is Ardahan; here there are only field-works; it is a mere mud village, with an old castle, the houses being for the most part built underground for protection from the severity of the climate. Ardahan can be approached both from Akhaltsich and Achalkalaki; but it affords excellent positions for defence against an advance from either side. Kars is, as I write, besieged by the Russians. It is a partly walled town, with a citadel situated on both banks of the Kars-Tchai, crossed here by stone bridges. It has a population of 13,000 or 14,000, and is situated in a corn-producing plain. It is surrounded by heights, and would be difficult to fortify thoroughly; but the Turks have constructed redoubts for its defence. A Russian despatch described the garrison leaving the fortress on April 30, and taking up a position under the shelter of these redoubts. It has, however, been turned by the cavalry of General Melikoff, and, if not already in his hands, will probably be soon reduced by bombardment. Should this fail, it can be invested and turned. I am not aware whether the Turks have thrown up any fortifications on the road between Erzeroum and Bayazed. There is, I believe, a good position at Kara-Kalissa; but it looks as though the Turks were falling back to concentrate and defend a position near Erzeroum. If so, they are right, in point of strategy; but if their concentrated army is once beaten, the advance upon Erzeroum will be rapid and easy. Erzeroum is situated on the upper waters of the western Euphrates; to reach it from Bayazed the upper waters of the eastern Euphrates are crossed. From Erzeroum to Trebizond there is a good road of about 200 miles in length; and it is about the same distance to Diarbekir, on the great Bagdad caravan road. From Diarbekir to the Gulf of Scanderoun it is about 300 miles.

In considering the progress of war in Asiatic Turkey, Persia cannot be entirely left out of the question. I gather from the newspapers that she has concentrated a force of 20,000 or 30,000 men at the north-west angle of her frontier, where it joins Russia on the north and Turkey on the west. A force issuing from this corner of Persia, which is thrust out like a bastion between Russian and Turkish territory, might exercise a most powerful effect upon the fortunes of the campaign. Persia, I believe, dreads Russia, who has conquered her troops in repeated campaigns, and once dictated terms of peace to her in her capital of Teheran. Both on the western and on the eastern shores of the Caspian Russia has gradually encroached upon Persian territory. On the west shore she has thrust the Persian frontier back on the river Araxes, has annexed Baku and Lenkoran; on the eastern side she has pushed Persia southwards beyond the Atrek, and has formed a naval station at Ashourada. Persia retains the southern shore of the Caspian, but Russia permits no flag but her own to float upon that sea; and the Shah and his advisers cannot fail to see that the Caspian is destined to

become a Russian lake, and that sooner or later Russia hopes to plant one foot upon the Mediterranean and the other upon the Persian Gulf. France, who at one time had great influence in Persia, has long since abandoned it; and there is one nation only to which the Shah can possibly look for help. That nation is England; but our policy of late years has not been in the direction of supporting the Shah. He has nothing to fear from England, and would gladly place himself under our protection, were it real and earnest; but, as it is, his interests lie in the direction of keeping in favour with Russia. To act alone against her without the support of England would be to court destruction at her hands, and, therefore, we may safely assume that the force assembled about Khôl will not act in a sense hostile to Russia. The Turkish and Persian Mohammedans are of different sects, and the Persians do not recognise the Sultan as the Kaliph. It is therefore quite possible that when the fortune of war turns against Turkey the Persian forces may be let loose to plunder in the direction of Lake Van and Kurdistan; nor would it be possible for England, even were she so disposed, to march any force into this part of Persia in the course of the present year.

Whatever operations are conducted in Armenia or Turkestan must be carried on before winter sets in; for in the winter the country is covered with deep snow and is intensely cold. On the other hand, in summer the heat is excessive—in fact, the characteristic of the Armenian climate is the great extremes of heat and cold. The climate varies greatly in different parts of the country. The plateaux are healthy, though the sanitary conditions of the towns and villages are very bad; but the valleys and marshes which border the rivers running down from the plateaux of Erzeroum are unhealthy in the extreme. It is probable that considerable quantities of the chief articles of supply for an army would be found in the country, meat and flour being abundant; water, too, is plentiful in Armenia; fuel, however, is very scarce, except on the seacoast and the Soghanli-Dagh. Camels, horses, and oxen are to be found for transport; and, as the Russian army operating here is said to be deficient in transport, it is probable that it will make heavy requisitions upon the people of Armenia. An Armenian lately staying in London, whose opinion is entitled to great weight, expressed his belief that if the Russians were signally successful in Armenia an insurrection of the Armenian Christians would take place against the Turks; but, from all the accounts which have reached me from recent travellers in that country, it appears that the Armenian Christians have little to complain of. They are exempt from military conscription; and no recent instances of oppression have come to light. On the other hand, were a strong force of any other Power to enter the Russian Caucasian provinces—a force of sufficient strength to give confidence to the Circassians—it is probable that the hill tribes of the Caucasus and other tribes submitting unwillingly to Russian rule might easily be induced to revolt. A rising even north of the Caucasus would seriously interfere with one of Russia's only two lines of supply; a rising amongst the men of Daghestan might interfere with her line of operations from Baku. Under the present condition of the Russian advance in Asiatic Turkey, it could only be by an attack upon her communications from Persia or the Black Sea that she could be compelled to retreat by any force not actually superior in point of numbers.

Before concluding this sketch, a few words as to the movements of the contending armies up to the time of my sending these proofs to press (May 15) may be of interest. On April 24 without previous declaration of war, the Russian army crossed the Roumanian frontier. While the right wing crossed the Pruth opposite Jassy, the centre reached it at Leovo, and the left wing marched directly upon the Danube, occupying Kilia, Ismail, Reni, and Galatz, pushing on a column which seized the Barbosch railway bridge across the Sereth and protected it by batteries, while a still further advance was made in this direction to Ibraila. While the left wing holds and fortifies these places, the centre and right are marching by the valleys of the Pruth, Berlat, and Sereth towards the Danube. Troops have been sent by railway to Bucharest and Giurgevo, and other points higher up the river have been occupied. Meanwhile the Roumanian army has occupied Turn-Severin and Kalafat, opposite Widdin. A few Cossacks are said to have been sent across the river at Reni; but the movements of the Russians have been mainly confined to forming a cordon of troops along the Danube, and bringing on their columns through Roumania. They have taken the post and the telegraphs, as well as the railways, into their hands, and kept their secrets so well that but little information has leaked out. But we know that all their transport must march by road; that the roads are still in a very bad condition, and that the distance from Jassy to Rustchuk is about 275 miles. As it is probable that the bulk of their matériel will be brought up to the front before the passage of the river is attempted, and as fifty miles a week is a good average for marches over such roads, all stoppages included, good authorities estimate that they will not be ready to cross till end of the present month.

I have no knowledge of the Turkish plan of defence; nor has the press given any indications of what it is likely to be. Beyond some useless cannonading from their gun-boats on the Danube, the Turks have done nothing to hinder the Russian dispositions. They appear to have fallen back from the Dobrudscha; but troops drawn in from Widdin towards the centre are said to have been sent back on the occupation of Kalafat by the enemy. The Turks have bombarded Kalafat from Widdin; but have nowhere attempted to effect a lodgment on the left bank of the Danube. It would have been a very useful stroke to destroy the Barbosch bridge; but probably the Russian advance without previous declaration of war took them by surprise; and they were unwilling to commit any hostile act against Roumania so long as there was a chance of that State remaining neutral.

In Asia on the same day the Russians crossed the frontier. A reconnaissance was made towards Batoum, and repulsed.

Meanwhile simultaneous advances were made towards Ardahan, Kars, and Bayazed. The latter place was abandoned by its garrison, who retreated towards Erzeroum. What has occurred on the Ardahan route we do not know. Kars was turned by the Russian cavalry, which is said to have harassed a force under Mukhtar Pasha, retiring from Kars towards Erzeroum. Subsequently Kars has been invested, partially if not wholly; and it appears probable that the main Russian advance will take place by the Ardahan and Bayazed routes. The latter road turns the strongest position on the Soghanli Dagh, and an advance in force by it would compel the Turks to fall back nearer to Erzeroum. Meanwhile the position of Batoum on the flank is a constant source of danger to Russia; because at any time a large force might be landed there and advance into Russian territory, so that Batoum must necessarily be masked by a force much larger than its existing garrison would demand. This accounts for the rash assault made on the 11th, which met with the fate it deserved. The Russians will meet with great difficulties of transport and supply in Turkish Armenia. They encountered such difficulties in their campaigns in 1828-29; and now the size of the invading army is much greater, the weight of ammunition to be carried far heavier, and the roads are no better—are, indeed, probably worse than they were at that time.

I express no opinion whether England will or will not be drawn into this war in defence of British interests; but it is evident that if the course of events should lead this country to send a force to Constantinople or to the Black Sea, the neck of land in front of Gallipoli must first be occupied, in order to secure from interruption the passage of the Dardanelles. Gallipoli and the position of Boulair are nearer than Constantinople is to the Balkans, and I find a general concurrence of opinion amongst our highest military authorities, that the Russians could reach Constantinople within less than sixty days from their crossing the Danube. I am not in the secrets of the War Office, and therefore cannot tell how long it would take to prepare and send out a British force sufficient to hold the Constantinople position; but, in my own humble opinion, based upon what has been done on previous occasions, it would not be less than from forty-five to fifty days. If that be at all correct, the nation has not much time for making up its mind.

THE RUSSIAN AND TURKISH NAVIES.

BY E. J. REED, ESQ., C.B., F.R.S., M.P.,
LATE CHIEF CONSTRUCTOR OF HER MAJESTY'S NAVY.

Although the great and ruling events of the war will doubtless turn upon military operations, it is likely that the navies of the two countries will furnish many exciting and some instructive incidents, and both the order and the rapidity of hostilities will be much influenced by the respective naval conditions of the belligerents. And however viewed—whether broadly as fleets or in more detail as ships—the Russian and Turkish navies are alike interesting. The interest is in each case almost exclusively confined to ironclad ships, as in neither navy, if we except certain Imperial yachts of very high speed, do any remarkable vessels of unarmoured types exist, nor is the number of efficient vessels of this kind great in either navy.

Viewing, therefore, the ironclad navies of the two countries, we observe, first, that the navy of Russia is of a much more composite and diversified nature than that of Turkey. While the latter consists entirely of broadside ships (excepting the river boats), the Russians have adopted both broadsides and turrets, and both broadsides and turrets have been embodied in vessels of very different types. Until within the last few years, and more particularly before the advent of Admiral Popoff to that somewhat undefined but very powerful office of extra-constructor which he has of late years held, the Russian navy had but a remote relation to the British Navy. In the days of wooden ships, the Russian Navy was, no doubt, modelled in pretty close conformity with Western war-ships; and, even since the introduction of armour-clads, the examples of England and France certainly have had great influence with Russian designers; but there were other powerful influences also at work, and the American monitor type of vessel, and the English turret system of the late Captain Cowper Coles, obtained admirers and imitators in the Russian Admiralty. Admiral Popoff has subsequently established closer relations with British constructors, and his admiration of our ships and systems of design has often been publicly expressed by him; but the gallant Admiral seems to be himself so original a designer as to give the freest scope to his own inventive faculties, and the Russian Navy accordingly now includes more than one type of vessel bearing his peculiar impress, and among them the famous circular ironclads which have been described and illustrated in these columns. In the Turkish Navy, on the contrary, British influence has been paramount in all essential respects, and the result is that the Turkish ironclads are of much less variable type, and entirely free from the influence exerted in America by Mr. Ericsson and in England by Captain Coles.

Counting ironclads of all kinds and sizes, including gun-boats, and ships in progress as well as finished ships, the Russian navy is the larger of the two, comprising twenty-nine vessels against the twenty-one of the Turkish navy, and an aggregate tonnage (displacement) of 92,178 against 79,722. Of ships of 5000 tons and upwards, the Russians have four, while the Turks have six, of which only five are available, as will presently be seen; of ships between 5000 and 2000 tons each, the Russians have twelve and the Turks ten (eight only available); of vessels between 2000 and 1000 tons, there are thirteen Russian and no Turkish, the remaining five Turkish vessels being small river gun-boats of only 328 tons each, carrying only 3½-in. armour, and so constructed as to be capable of being readily taken to pieces (*démontable*). We shall presently have occasion to show that two—and probably three—of the most important vessels that appear in the list of

Turkish ships are still in England, more or less incomplete, and must be deducted from the twenty-one ships with which we have credited the Turkish navy. This will at the same time reduce the tonnage from 79,722 tons to 61,294 tons, or two-thirds the tonnage of the Russian ships.

Before looking more closely into the character of these two ironclad navies, it will be well to observe that in the present war Turkey will probably derive a special advantage from the fact that her ships are to operate at home, or near at home; while the Russian fleet must operate chiefly at an enormous distance from its base and from Russian ports. This assumes, of course, that the war will be carried on in the south only, and not in the Baltic, as it is highly improbable that the Turks will attempt anything against the Russian ports of the Baltic or of the Gulf of Finland. For whether the Russian Baltic fleet, on the opening up of the navigation, remains in the north or proceeds to the Mediterranean (as has been, in the latter case, confidently asserted), it is exceedingly improbable that Turkey will be able to spare any great and powerful squadron of her ironclads for operations in the north, because in the former case she would scarcely care to encounter the Russian fleet at so great a distance from her own ports, especially as even a decisive victory there would be comparatively barren of results now that every port of importance can be readily protected by electric torpedoes; and if the Russian Baltic fleet comes south, the Turks must either watch or fight it. Of course, there is the possible case of the Russian Baltic squadron coming to the Mediterranean, and being there engaged and defeated, or even destroyed, by a superior force of Turkish ironclads; but in that case, there can be but little doubt, the Turkish fleet would be so much knocked about as to be effectually prevented—even if other causes did not exist to deter it—from going so far afield as the Baltic for further advantage and glory. The presence of a Turkish squadron in the Baltic is, in fact, under any circumstances of the present war, so improbable a contingency that it need hardly be considered, and would not deserve even to be mentioned but for the daring and enterprising qualities of Hobart Pasha, its present Commander-in-Chief, to whom the bold and unanticipated nature of the expedition might be a strong inducement to undertake it. Its improbability is, however, so great as to lend great credit to the rumour that a squadron of at least ten Russian ironclads may shortly make its appearance in the Mediterranean. In the Black Sea Russia has but two ironclads, and these are the two circular vessels, the Novgorod and the Admiral Popoff, which have been specially designed for the defence of the mouths of the Dnieper and of the Straits of Kertch. Powerful as those two vessels may be for their intended purposes, they are small in comparison with the large Turkish frigates (which are, indeed, three times their size), and are not, we have reason to believe, in the best condition. It was stated in public that the boilers and machinery of the first vessel, the Novgorod, were not in good order even at the date of our visit to her in November, 1875; while the Admiral Popoff has only temporary gun-carriages of an inferior kind, the splendid hydraulic gun-carriages which Messrs. Easton and Anderson, of Brith, have lately constructed for her are either still in their establishment or must have left there within the last few days. It is likely, therefore, that these two vessels will act chiefly on the defensive, and consequently the entire extent and circuit of the Black Sea lie open to the operations of the Turkish fleet. It is not at all probable that, even under these circumstances, the Russians will attempt to force the Dardanelles and Bosphorus with their ships from the Baltic; but it will scarcely be consistent with their naval prowess or with their historical naval reputation if they make no diversion, by way of relief to their Black Sea ports, coasts, and naval establishments. In time of war, and especially in these days, events occur so swiftly that what we are now writing, and are about to write, may possibly be set aside even before it comes under the eyes of our readers; but at the time of writing there would appear to be grounds for giving credence to the statement that a considerable squadron of Russian ironclads will shortly come south, will make their appearance in the Mediterranean, and will compel the Turks either to send their most powerful ships south or to submit to have Salonica, Alexandria, and other ports ravaged by the enemy. At this point, however, it becomes necessary to revert to the composition of the two hostile ironclad navies.

We will first describe the Turkish ships. The largest of these are two very large frigates, of 9000 tons each (more exactly, 8994 tons by measurement displacement), which have quite recently been built in England, and one of which has not yet left our shores. Although it has been stated (at the time of writing) that this ship, the Hamidieh, is on the point of sailing for Turkey, and although she is receiving coals, oil, tallow, provisions, and other stores for the voyage, we venture to believe that she will not attempt to leave, and for the simple reason that she is entirely without armament. She has not a gun on board, and although it might not be impossible for the Turkish Government to obtain guns of some approximately suitable kind for her without much delay, modern guns require such special and elaborate carriages and other fittings as cannot be produced and applied in a few days. If she had been got away a few weeks ago there would probably have been no Russian vessel to intercept and molest her; but the time for an unmolested voyage of an unarmed Turkish frigate of great value has probably already passed away, and Russian vessels are, no doubt, on the look-out for her. The ship, it is true, is of very high speed, and is a powerful ram, and a dashing captain might possibly elude or disregard even a watchful and a powerful enemy; but machinery may break down, and the ship has no trained crew to make the sail power available, so that she might well fall an easy prey to an enemy if the trip were attempted; and, besides this, questions may now arise respecting the officering and manning of this ship in England during the actual hostilities between Turkey and Russia. On the whole, we shall be surprised if this ship, notwithstanding her very advanced state,

is not doomed to inactivity during the present war. If so, it will be a great misfortune to the Turkish Government, as she is one of the two most costly and powerful ships which they possess. We need not further dwell upon her, as she is in every respect similar to the Mesoudiye. This fine ship (like the other) has been built by the Thames Ironworks Company, under the superintendence of officers of the British Admiralty. In general characteristics the Mesoudiye is like the Hercules, but with the central battery very much lengthened, in order to carry twelve guns of eighteen tons each, instead of the eight of the Hercules. This enormous battery of Armstrong guns at once stamps her as a ship of the very first class as regards offensive powers, superior, in fact, in this respect to all the ships of the British Navy, excepting only the Alexandra. In order to accomplish this object, the ship has been made somewhat longer than any modern ironclads of our own Navy, and of a breadth equal to that of the broadest of our broadside ships. Practically speaking, however, she compares for size very nearly with our own Sultan, as the following figures will show:—

	Length.	Breadth.	Displacement
	Feet.	Feet.	Tonnage.
Sultan	325	59	8899
Mesoudiye	332	59	8994

It should be stated that the Sultan has a small upper-deck battery, which the other ship has not, and that there are other differences between the two ships, which account for the differences of armament, that need not here be dwelt upon. The armour of the Mesoudiye is in places 12 in. thick, with the usual taperings towards the ends, and in the strakes below and above the water-line; and one of the means by which the weight of armour is kept down to a reasonable amount, notwithstanding the great length of the battery, is that of narrowing the belt of armour before and abaft the battery, and more particularly keeping the upper edge of the armour-belt down much nearer to the water-line than has been usual in the large ironclads of our own Navy. The total weight of the armour of this ship, and of the teak timber backing which supports it, is 2000 tons. The height of her ports is ten feet above the water, and, in order to keep the

guns up to this height, and at the same time to keep the deck before and abaft the battery down near to the water's surface, a great "break," or change of level at the main deck occurs at the ends of the battery. As the upper deck is continuous, it results that the height between the decks outside of the battery is very much greater than that within the battery, the latter being only just sufficient, of course, to allow of the guns being freely and comfortably fought. This great loftiness between decks—which is also observable, and from the same cause although in different degrees, in several of our British ironclads—strikes the eyes of visitors in a remarkable manner. It gives great spaciousness to the ward-room and many of the officers' cabins, and makes it difficult for any one seated in these apartments to realise the fact that they are on board an ironclad man-of-war. In point of fact, however, all these spacious apartments are outside of the armour protection, and all their splendid fittings and decorations would be exposed to speedy destruction in action. This great ship, the Mesoudiye, is rigged, and carries a fair proportion of canvas, and, having engines (by Maudslay) of over 7000 indicated



HIS IMPERIAL HIGHNESS THE GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS OF RUSSIA, COMMANDING THE ARMY ON THE DANUBE.

horse power, is capable of steaming, when hard pressed, at the rate of 13½ knots per hour. She is built with a formidable ram stem for running down an enemy, and with steam steering-gear, to give her great handiness when under steam. It will sufficiently complete her description to say that the guns at either end of her battery are so placed as to fire within a few degrees of the line of keel; that she has three additional guns of 6½ tons each on the upper deck, to complete the bow and stern fire; and that, besides these, she has six 20-pounders, also on the upper deck, for saluting and other subordinate purposes.

The Turkish navy next comprises four ships all of 56 ft. beam, 293 ft. in length, and of 6500 tons displacement tonnage. They are protected with 5½-in. armour on 10-in. wood backing, the hulls being of iron. They all have engines of 4500 indicated horse power, and steamed, when in good condition and doing their best, at twelve knots. They are each armed with fifteen guns of 6½ tons each and one of 12½ tons. They were all built in this country, several years ago, and are rigged vessels. These ships are named Azizieh, Orkanieh, Mahmoudieh, and Osmanieh respectively. Mr. Martin, in his "Statesman's Year Book," states that the last-named ship is

somewhat larger than the others, and he speaks of her as follows:—"Among the other ironclads the largest is the Osmanieh, built by Napier and Sons, Glasgow, and launched Sept. 2, 1864. The Osmanieh is a ram, armour-plated from stem to stern, 309 ft. long, 56 ft. broad, and of a burden of 4200 tons (old measurement, we may presume). The stem of the vessel projects about four feet beyond the upper deck at the water-line." Our own information points, as we have stated, to this ship being of substantially the same size and description as the other three vessels, all of which were built at about the same time, and we do not think there is any great or substantial difference between them.

The next ship in point of importance in the Turkish fleet is the Athar Terfik (originally built in France for the Khedive of Egypt under the name of the Ibraiehnieh), which is 275 ft. long, 50 ft. broad, and has a displacement tonnage of 5000 tons. She is defended with 8-in. armour, and carries eight guns of 12½ tons. Her engines are of 3500 indicated horse power, and her speed about twelve knots. We may in this connection mention two ships of about the same tonnage as this one, which, as already stated, appear in the list of Turkish ships, but must be deducted therefrom in order to free the list

from unavailable vessels. We refer to two powerful vessels now under construction by Messrs. Samuda Brothers, of Poplar, and named respectively the Payki Sherref and the Barji-Zafer. The most advanced of these vessels has two months' work to be done upon her, and the other is not yet launched. Neither can, therefore, be allowed to leave this country for Turkey during the war, because of international law. It will be understood that these ships are in a somewhat different position from that of the Hamidieh already adverted to, for whereas she was Turkish property, and under the Turkish flag, before war was declared; the other two ships are the property of the English builders, and cannot now be parted with to a belligerent, or if parted with cannot, without a violation of international law, be taken by a belligerent owner from our ports. In point of fact, we understand that no attempt to bring the Turks into possession of either of these two ships will be made, and it is rumoured that they have ceased altogether to be the property of the Turkish Government, and have passed, subject to the claims of the builders, into the hands of private persons. They may therefore be dropped altogether out of consideration in dealing with the relative naval strengths of the belligerent

Powers. It has been either great neglect, or a marked want of funds, that has deprived the Turkish navy of these ships in their present contest with Russia. They carry armour as thick as that of the largest of their ships—viz., 12-inch, and are to be armed with more powerful guns than any other Turkish ship bears, having an armament each of four 25-ton guns. They are also short, broad, and handy ships, with an intended speed of twelve knots, and would have been powerful and invaluable additions to any navy in the present day.

The Turks next possess two vessels of still smaller size, but of a modern type, and well adapted by their armour, guns, and handiness for modern naval warfare. These are the Fethi Bulend and the Mukadamme Kies, sister ships. The

former of these was built in this country by the Thames Ironworks Company, Blackwall; and the latter is as nearly as possible an exact reproduction of her, built in the Imperial Dockyard at Constantinople, and mainly by Turkish workmen. These small vessels, which are of only 2760 tons displacement, on a length of 235 ft. by a breadth of 42 ft., have engines of 3000 indicated horse power, and have a speed of nearly fourteen knots, which is enormous for vessels so small. They each carry 9-in. armour, with a battery of four 12½-ton guns, each gun being placed at the angle of the battery, so as to obtain with the four guns fire in all directions, or very nearly so. It is difficult to put a full value upon small fast armour-clad vessels of this type under the conditions of modern warfare; and we

may observe, in passing, that it is a matter both of surprise and of regret that the British Navy includes no such ships.

We come next to a couple of somewhat smaller vessels, not altogether unlike the Fethi Bulend in their general type, but inferior to her in the essential elements of armour, engine power, and speed. We refer to the Avni Illah, built in 1869 by the Thames Company, and the Muni Zafer, built at the same time by Samuda Brothers. These vessels are 230 ft. long, 36 ft. broad, and have a displacement of 2320 tons. They each carry four 12½-ton guns, with devices (differing from those of the Fethi Bulend) for securing great horizontal scope of fire; but their thickest armour is 7-inch, their engine power 2000 indicated, and their speed twelve knots.



ADMIRAL HOBART PASHA, COMMANDER OF THE TURKISH FLEET.

All the foregoing ships, with one exception, have been built for the Turkish Government. We now come to some vessels of earlier and inferior types, several of which were originally constructed for the Egyptian Government and afterwards handed over by the Khedive to the Sultan. There are three corvettes, almost alike, named Athar Sheket, Neghin Sheket, and Idjla Lieh, all of about 210 ft. long, 40 ft. broad, and of 2300 tons displacement. They each carry four 150-pounders (of about 6½ tons) and one 12½-ton gun, and are protected with 4½-inch armour. They have engines of 2000 indicated horse power, and steam from eleven to twelve knots. Besides these three vessels, there are two others—the Latif Gelit and the Hazi Rahman, carrying 4½-inch armour and four guns (two of 6½ tons and two smaller); but these are of light draught (9 ft.), and have low-powered engines (being intended for the Danube

mouths), and are consequently of low speed, and weak both offensively and defensively. Of the five *démontable* river gun-boats it is needless to say more than has been already mentioned, except that they each carry two 9-inch guns in turrets, are defended with 3-inch armour, draw 6 ft. of water, and steam two of them at nine knots, and three of them at seven knots. It is most probably the Latif Gelit which has been blown up on the Danube.

The only Turkish ironclad which we have left unmentioned is a ship called the Noosretieh, which has been constructed at Constantinople, and may be considered as of a similar type to the Mesoudiye and Hamidieh, but much smaller, being of 6900 tons displacement. This ship is included in some lists as completed, and as taking a part in the present war. M. Dislere states that she carries ten guns of 12½ tons in a central battery,

with angular fire at the corners within 15 degrees of the line of keel, and that the bow and stern chasers consist of one 6½-ton unprotected gun on the upper deck. Her thickest armour is 9 in. Besides her ironclads, Turkey possesses unarmoured ships as follows—viz., three or four ships of the line, five frigates, and several corvettes, with numerous despatch and gun boats of various descriptions, amounting probably to fifty. There are likewise three Imperial yachts of high speed, which may be made available for despatch and transport purposes. Of the condition of the various vessels composing the fleet we must speak presently.

On turning to look at the Russian navy, we find we have to deal with an ironclad fleet of a very different character indeed to that of Turkey. We have seen that at the head of the latter stands the large English-built and English-armed frigate

Mesoudiye, with its long outspread battery of broadside 18-ton guns. There is no ship at all analogous to this in the Russian navy. At the head of that navy stands the Peter the Great, which in its general characteristics resembles our own Devastation and Dreadnought types of ship, being a large two-turreted twin-screw mastless ship, with very thick armour, very heavy guns, and a high speed. This powerful ship is 330 ft. long, 61 ft. broad at the battery, and has a displacement of nearly 10,000 tons. She has also been supplied with engines and boilers intended to produce no less than 10,000 indicated horse power, and to give to the vast ship a speed of fifteen knots. Her armour is 15 in. thick, and each of her four guns weighs 40 tons. The worst rumours have reached this country about this vessel, some of them going the length of averring that she is leaky, that her engines when at work shake her all to pieces, that she cannot stand, the fire of her own guns, that her engines are failures, and that instead of being one of the fastest ironclads in the world, she is, in point of fact, one of the slowest. The writer of these lines having seen the ship, and gone carefully through her more than once, advises the reader to receive these statements with distrust. No doubt there are very great difficulties to be encountered and overcome in turning out in Russian factories and dockyards such a ship as this, and it is not impossible—especially as the ship has been sheathed with wood, in the working and fastening of which to an iron hull under water extreme accuracy and care are indispensable—that some leakages may have occurred, although these need only be believed when some evidence is given. The Peter the Great can hardly, however, be structurally weak, or leaky in any very serious manner; and although our own recent experience must warn us not to place excessive confidence in marine engines, it may be assumed that the firm of Baird and Co., of St. Petersburg, who manufactured the engines and boilers, have made no very great or permanent failure in her machinery. Making all allowances for possible or probable shortcomings, it will be safe to assume that this ship, although exclusively Russian built, will be found to correspond pretty closely to what her elements of design and construction would lead us to expect. If it be true that the Russian Government intend to send a squadron south the Peter the Great will no doubt form its leading ship, and we shall probably have an opportunity of seeing her in English ports. However dreadful in many respects, an engagement between this ship and the Mesoudiye would illustrate a great many questions upon which much doubt at present exists, and it is to be hoped that if the course of events should unhappily bring about such an engagement, neither skill nor courage will be wanting on the part of their officers and crews, so that the merits of these great rival ships and rival systems of naval design may be fairly exhibited. Although the Peter the Great is well known to us, and we have, in fact, all her plans before us as we write, we think it will interest our readers to cite the following observations from M. Dislere's book on *La Guerre d'Escadre*, published last year. He says:—"At the epoch when the British Admiralty was led to construct ironclad ships with central batteries, and without masts or sails, carrying in turrets guns of the greatest calibre, the Russian marine authorities arrived at the same conclusion, and, almost on the same day, the Devastation was commenced at Portsmouth and the Peter the Great at St. Petersburg. Larger than the English ship, with a displacement a little greater, thanks also to a reduction in the coal supply, and consequently in her steaming distance, the Peter the Great was able to receive armour plating of excessive thickness ('500 millimetres') at the water-line, with a proportional increase in the other parts of her armour-plating. The draught of water, in view of the exigencies of navigation in the Baltic, was reduced to 23 ft., from which followed the necessity of increasing considerably the length of the ship, and of augmenting the power of its machinery. . . . To resume, the Peter the Great represents, for the time at which she was commenced, the maximum useful effect to be derived from a displacement of about 10,000 tons." However this may be, we clearly see in this ship an embodiment, at a very early period of the development of these large European monitors, of a well-studied effort to keep pace in Russia with the very latest progress made in England; and, in point of fact, a careful study of her design proves that, if the Peter the Great has any very considerable defects, they must be defects of workmanship rather than of principle or of plan. We see no less clearly that, in a conflict between this great seagoing mastless monitor and such a frigate as the Mesoudiye we should witness a contest between the latest and highest development of the frigate type and a very powerful example of a type of vessel that is essentially a product of modern invention.

In going over the remaining vessels of the Russian navy we shall find it impossible to follow both the order of size and the order of efficiency, for some of the large ironclads of early date are doubtless much inferior to some of the smaller but more recent vessels. It will perhaps be best, on the whole, to consider them approximately in the order of size; and we may therefore mention next the Sevastopol and the Petropauloski, two wood-built frigates, of seagoing type, of 6200 tons displacement, and 300 ft. in length. These ships, like our own early vessels, are plated with only 4½-in. armour, and carry armaments of 9½-ton guns, these being eighteen in number in the Sevastopol and twenty in the other ship. Both ships are built as rams, the first named having a speed of fourteen knots and the latter of twelve knots, the indicated horse power being about 3000 horses in each case, but the slower ship being 56 ft. in breadth and the faster only 50 ft. 10 in. This ship is in commission, and was in the Mediterranean last year. The Prince Pojarsky is an iron ship, with a central battery, and she also is a ram. She is a smaller ship than the two preceding, being only 280 ft. long, 49 ft. broad, and of a displacement tonnage of 4500. Like them, she has but 4½-in. armour, with 18-in. teak backing, and carries an armament of ten guns of equal size with theirs. Her speed is eleven knots.

Next in order comes the Minin, a ship designed originally

as a turret-ship of the Monarch type, but smaller, being 289 ft. in length, 49 ft. in breadth, and of 5800 tons displacement. She was found to have been designed unsatisfactorily in some respects, and has now been converted, at the works of the Baltic Ironworks Company, St. Petersburg, into a broadside cruising-ship, with 7-in. armour belt and an upper-deck battery of six 12½-ton guns. Very similar in type, but built from original designs chiefly by Admiral Popoff (who has conducted the conversion of the Minin), are the General Admiral and Duke of Edinburgh, two iron-built ships, 285 ft. long, 48 ft. broad, and 4500 tons displacement. Their armour is 6 in. thick, and they each carry four 12½-ton and two 7-ton guns *en barbette*. All three ships have engines of 6300 indicated horse power, and will steam at a speed of about thirteen knots. They are all intended to keep the sea, and to proceed to foreign stations, and they therefore carry not only a large coal supply, but also a large spread of canvas. Neither the General Admiral, the Duke of Edinburgh, nor the Minin is yet complete; but, judging from the state in which we last saw them, they cannot be very far from completion, and may form part of the contemplated Mediterranean squadron. Owing to the backward state of their machinery, however, this cannot take place till late in the summer.

We next come to four iron-built turret-ships, which are all nearly alike in size, and which, when designed, were intended as a powerful squadron of cruising ships. They are known as the four Admirals, being named after four distinguished officers of that rank, and were modelled on the general type of low freeboard rigged turret-vessels, so much recommended a few years ago by the friends of the late Captain Cowper Coles. They were, in fact, ships of the Captain class, but of less size; and when that ill-fated vessel capsized and went to the bottom confidence was lost in these four vessels, in so far as their cruising capabilities were concerned. The result has been that the intention to rig them as cruising ships has been abandoned, but there is probably no good reason why, with an additional coal supply, they should not form part of a fighting squadron, and in that capacity we may expect to see them accompany the Peter the Great as a bevy of satellites, if we may use such a phrase, to the Mediterranean. They are all 260 ft. long, 43½ ft. broad, and of about 3700 tons displacement. But they differ somewhat in armour and armament, as follows:—

	Thickness of Armour.	Armament.	No. of Turrets.
Admiral Lazareff ...	5½-6 in.	6 of 15½ tons	3
Admiral Grieg ...	5½-6 in.	3 of 27 tons	3
Admiral Chichagoff ...	6 in.	2 of 27 tons	2
Admiral Spiridoff ...	6 in.	2 of 27 tons	2

They are all furnished with engines of 400 nominal and 2000 indicated horse power, and each has twin screw-propellers. They cannot be considered fast vessels, none of them exceeding eleven knots in speed, and their coal supply is small (only 300 tons), even when we view them as full-rigged ships. With their masts and rigging dispensed with, and the crew and provisions greatly reduced in consequence, no great difficulty would be found, however, in doubling the quantity of coal, or even in increasing it still further.

Passing by for the moment the two circular ships, which we will consider hereafter, we may next mention the three floating batteries—Pervenetz, Kreml, and Netro-Menya. These are mastless vessels of about 3300 tons displacement each (220 ft. long by 53 ft. beam), and are protected with 4½-in. armour, excepting the Kreml, which has some plates of 6-in. iron upon her sides. Their armaments consist chiefly in each case of 9½-ton guns, of which the Pervenetz carries fourteen, the Netro-Menya sixteen, and the Kreml twelve, the last-named ship having besides five guns of 5 tons each. The Kreml's greatest speed is nine knots, the Pervenetz being a little faster and the other ship a little slower.

The Russian navy in the Baltic also comprises no less than thirteen turret-ships of the American monitor type, of comparatively light draught—the draught of water of several of them being only 10½ ft., and none exceeding 12 ft. Of these vessels three are two-turreted and the remainder single-turreted monitors. The guns of all of them are 15½ tons each in weight. The Charodeyka and the Rusalka each carry four guns, two in each of two turrets; the Smertch also has two turrets, but carries only one gun in each; and all the remaining ten vessels carry each two guns in a single turret. The speeds of the three vessels first named are from eight and a half to nine knots; those of the other ten are from seven to eight knots. The armour in no case exceeds 5 in. except in the turrets, where it is in most of them made up to 11 in. in thickness. The displacement tonnage of the Charodeyka and Rusalka is nearly 2000 tons in each case; that of the others about 1500 tons each.

The only other ironclads of Russia are the circular ships Novgorod and Admiral Popoff. The very notoriety of these extraordinary vessels has tended in some degree to diminish their credit, chiefly because it has drawn them somewhat out of the limited sphere for which they were intended, and brought them into comparison with seagoing ships, which they were never intended to be. On hearing of their steaming from one end of the Black Sea to the other, and encountering bad weather at sea, people begin to think of them in connection with other seagoing ships, and to ask, "What is their speed?" "How do they pitch and roll?" "How do they defend themselves against boarders?" and so forth. These questions are no doubt very interesting and important; and the more we hear of the sea performances of these vessels the more justified people are in putting them. But the tendency of doing so is, as we have said, to bring them into a more or less false light, and to judge them by improper standards. There is no doubt whatever that these circular monitors were intended to perform in the South of Russia the simple and specific purpose of defending the mouths of the Dnieper and the coasts of the Sea of Azof, assisting, no doubt, in the latter case the fixed fortifications of Kertch. It would be well, therefore, to compare them with the Russian monitors which were built for similar services in

the Baltic, or, in the present state of war, with the light draught vessels of Turkey. This the reader can now readily do for himself, with the above information before him: we must proceed to give some further account of the circular vessels themselves. The Novgorod (the first built) is 101 ft. in diameter and 13 ft. 2 in. draught of water. She is protected with 11-inch armour, and armed with two guns of 27 tons each in a fixed circular turret at the centre of the ship. She is propelled by engines of 480 nominal and 2700 indicated horse power, by means of six screw-propellers, and steams seven knots. The second ship, named by the command of his Majesty the Emperor the Admiral Popoff, after her designer, is 121 ft. in diameter, draws 14 ft. of water, is protected with 18 in. of armour, and armed with two guns of 40 tons each in a fixed turret situated as in the other ship. She is propelled by engines of 640 nominal, and about 3500 indicated, horse power, by means of four screw-propellers, and steams at nine knots. With regard to the armour of these vessels, respecting which there has been some controversy, it should be observed that behind the armour plates is an iron backing of channel rail of great strength, which so much exceeds in weight the ordinary amount of iron edge-plates that it would be much more misleading to omit this from the weight of armour than to include it in it, and for this reason we have given the above thicknesses of plating which are equivalent to the actual plating, increased by an amount due to the inner edge or channel armour, so to speak. As it is very desirable for the public to form and hold sound opinions upon these naval questions in the present state of European affairs, we venture to put them on their guard against the misleading gossip of those who do not understand them. Admiral Popoff has been so prominent of late years, and has had so much influence with his Government, that those whom he more or less displaces not unnaturally do what they conveniently can to discredit him, directly and indirectly; and this is carried to such lengths, that the grave errors which have undoubtedly been made in Russian naval administration are visited, not upon those who have made them, but upon the man who has not made them, but who has, on the contrary, given his country really powerful ships—the only powerful ones she now has. A curious instance of this, which may be cited as an example of many, occurred in a letter which a writer signing himself "W. W." contributed to the *Pall Mall Gazette* of Saturday, April 28. He wrote, "As to the navy, and the Popoffkas, so much praised in the *Times* a little while ago by the Russian Correspondent of that journal, I need only quote *ipseissima verba* of the Emperor, uttered within the last three months to one of his ministers:—'My navy is very much like the army of Napoleon III. at the commencement of the German War—very large on paper, but very small when found.'" Now, the Emperor may have spoken those words, and he may have spoken them with considerable truth, as we have seen, looking to the failure in plan of several ships, the incompleteness of others, and the large extent to which American monitors, fit for Baltic use only, figure in his Navy List. But what the Emperor's words had to do with the "Popoffkas," which designation is strictly limited to the two circular ships, it is hard to conceive. These ships do not exist on paper only; they are not stowed out of sight where they cannot be found; they are ready for service, and are, no doubt, performing it; they are on guard against the Turkish enemy, with thicker armour and heavier guns by far than any other Russian ships possess (neglecting only the Peter the Great, which also is Admiral Popoff's ship); and it cannot be doubted, therefore, that the words of the Emperor, if spoken at all, were spoken notwithstanding the possession of these vessels; and had the Russian navy been as fortunate in respect of all its other ships as it has been in respect of these it is obvious such words could not have been spoken at all. In fact, the writer of these remarks has heard from the Czar's own lips His Majesty's approval of the Popoffkas for their intended purpose. If Russia had but built a dozen of these vessels she would have been well able to hold the Black Sea easily against the Turkish fleet, and have threatened Constantinople if she were foolish enough to do so. Having but two such vessels in the Black Sea, and not another ironclad of any kind there, these two will probably be devoted solely to the object for which they were built, and will act strictly on the defensive at the sea entrances.

The Russian Navy, like the Turkish, has a considerable number of unarmoured vessels. No wooden line-of-battle ships are now comprised in its list; but it has five steam-frigates, twenty-two wooden steam-corvettes and cruisers of various sizes, and more than one hundred gun-boats and smaller vessels, besides fourteen yachts, several of which are large and fast. Several of these unarmoured ships are, of course, on distant stations; and these, while the war is confined to the present belligerents, will find, of course, little or no opportunity for attacking Turkey. In the Black Sea and Mediterranean some of the unarmoured fleet will, no doubt, play an active part; but the chief interest of naval operations will be concentrated in and upon the ironclad fleet. We have now seen how that fleet is in each composed, in so far as the size, offensive and defensive powers, speed, &c., are concerned, but of the condition of the fleets we have yet to speak. The subject divides itself into two parts:—1. The condition of the ships, in hulls, armaments, and machinery; and, 2, the capabilities of their crews for working and fighting them. As regards the Turkish ships, if we leave out of consideration those which are still incomplete, both in England and Constantinople, it must be acknowledged that nothing but specific and minute information to the contrary would justify us in doubting that all the Turkish ironclads are fairly efficient. None of them has performed any great amount of service; none of them is old enough to be worn out with age, especially as a lot of them are iron built, and most of them English built; and great exertions have been made by Hobart Pasha for a long time past to bring them into a condition of efficiency in every respect. On the other hand, it must be borne in mind that constant care is requisite in order to keep iron ships in good condition, and more especially

to keep their engines and boilers so. It has frequently happened of late in our own Navy that injuries and accidents have occurred to boilers and machinery which have been very little used or not used at all, and it is hardly to be expected that greater care has been systematically taken over a course of years in the Turkish navy than in our own. Considerations of this nature should lead us to expect a serious falling off in the ships (both of Turkey and Russia) in one respect—that of speed. The speed we have assigned to all the ships previously described is that which is usually given—viz., the maximum which can be or has been attained under the most favourable conditions. Some readers may be disposed to regard this estimate of speed as essentially misleading; and so it doubtless is if it is not properly understood, and if deductions from it are not made. But the maximum attainable speed, with the best of coal, the best of stoking, clean bottom, smooth water, and little or no wind blowing, has the great merit of being a *standard* by which vessels of the same or of different navies can be compared with one another; and there is no other standard attainable. If bad coal is used, who is to define its degree of inferiority to the best? If inexperienced stokers or too few of them are employed, who is to judge of the falling off in the boiler performance from this cause? If the bottom is foul, who shall say what loss of speed is due to that fact? Or who shall judge with nicety, or even approximately, of the reduction of speed that would be due to an unmeasured force of wind, or to a disturbed sea, or to both combined? And, if no one can tell us the result of any one of these causes of loss of speed, who shall tell us the combined result of the whole? The fact is, when we once depart from maximum speed as our standard, our information at once becomes vague and uncertain. It is, nevertheless, necessary to bear in mind that the average working speed even of the best of steam-vessels falls far below the maximum, and that, too, when employed upon regular and known services. For example, the Channel steamers which run from Dover to Calais, and which are said to be able to steam seventeen knots, or nearly twenty miles an hour, usually occupy about an hour and forty minutes on the journey; and the large Holyhead mail-packets, which are said to be able to steam even faster still, make throughout the year an average speed of not much more than fourteen knots. In the case of war-ships, therefore, and still more in the case of most of the ships of the Russian and Turkish navies, which have but very occasional service to perform, we must make large deductions from their greatest attainable speed in order to arrive at the actual speed. There is no sufficient reason to doubt that in all other respects the Turkish vessels are fairly efficient; and, even where some defects may exist, as the war service has to be at present performed in home waters—at least until the Russian ships are released from the Baltic—they probably, unless serious and disabling, would not be allowed to interfere with the duties of the fleet.

The accounts which have lately reached this country respecting the crews and officers of the Turkish fleet speak of their discipline and efficiency as highly satisfactory to those who inspect them. And no doubt Hobart Pasha has taken good care to bring them into the best state possible. We must remember, however, that the Turkish fleet is—for what reason no man knows—a seagoing fleet, as we have seen, with masts, and sails, and sailing crews like most of our own ships; and discipline, and good order, and sailor-like appearance of the men in such a fleet are one thing, while the knowledge and experience necessary to take these steam fighting vessels, with modern armaments, into action, and there to manage all their parts efficiently, is another. Our own knowledge of what has taken place in the Turkish ships when they have been sent down for exercise into the Sea of Marmora makes us doubt whether a huge ship like the Mesoudieh, with her steam capstans, steam steering-gear, and diversified and more or less complex appliances for working and fighting, will be handled with all needful efficiency in the hurry and excitement of battle. To counteract any shortcomings, however, the Turks have the very great advantage of having a month or two of war-time in which to practice themselves, and have the Russian Black Sea seaboard towns to practise upon, because, as already remarked, it is unlikely that the two circular monitors will alone grapple with the Turkish fleet. On the whole, therefore, we may fairly assume that the Turkish naval strength is fairly represented by the ships which have been described, and that these ships and their crews will have been brought into a state of considerable fighting efficiency before the bulk of them is likely to encounter a Russian squadron.

Reverting now to the Russian navy, and considering, primarily, the condition of her ships, we note first that we have in her case to regard the question from a point of view very different from that from which we have considered the Turkish fleet, because, as it is highly improbable that a Turkish squadron will seek the Russians out in the Baltic, all the Russian naval work will have to be done in the south, at a vast distance from its only available dockyards and arsenals,—unless, indeed, the Russians should take one course which, although it would be an enterprise of daring and danger, is probably open to her—viz., that of forcing a passage through the Dardanelles and Bosphorus into the Black Sea. It is possible that international considerations are alone sufficient to prevent this; but even if that be not so, it is hardly to be expected that Russia would risk almost the only powerful ships she possesses in an enterprise so desperate as that of encountering all the land batteries, torpedoed, and naval forces with which Turkey could and would resist the Russian approach to the Euxine. We think we may dismiss this contingency from our thoughts, and that being so, have now to consider how far the Russian Baltic ironclads are in an available state for use in the Mediterranean. We may first, we think, dismiss the whole of the American monitors from this category, not because we hold it impossible, or extremely dangerous, to send them round in the spring or summer months, but because they were not intended for such a service, could only be sent upon it with a considerable degree

of risk, and will doubtless be kept in the Baltic for their natural purpose in the present state of European affairs. At least one of the three floating batteries will also be retained at Cronstadt. We are in grave doubt, as already stated, as to the practicability of getting the General Admiral, the Duke of Edinburgh, and the Minin ready for sea; but great exertions have been made of late, and it would not be safe to leave them all out of consideration. One, and possibly two of them are likely to be completed this summer. The Sevastopol and Prince Pojarski are available for service. The Petropaulski is in commission, the Peter the Great is ready for sea, and the "four Admirals" have also been made ready for service in the way previously suggested.

With regard to the condition of the officers and crews of the Russian fleet, it is sufficient to say three things:—First, the Russians always have a number of ships in commission and on actual service on, foreign stations, so that their officers and men are well practised in ordinary navigation and seamanship; secondly, unlike the Turkish navy, the Russian navy is always under the command of Russian officers in every grade, and a systematic habit of sending her ironclads out to exercise has been kept up ever since the introduction of ironclads; and, thirdly, on one plea and another, there always are a certain number of Russian naval officers studying in this country, and no doubt in France also, every improvement and development of the art of naval warfare, as regards both ships and tactics. When we add that the discipline and courage of her men are known to be proverbial, we have said enough to lead to the belief that her ships will be well handled and well fought. On this head, therefore, it is unnecessary to make any deductions or allowances beyond those which must inevitably attend the employment of ironclad steam-ships, with their multiplied mechanical contrivances under the conditions of battle.

Without, therefore, wishing to guarantee the accuracy of our list in the case of every one of the Russian ships, we may now draw a comparison between the available navies of Turkey and of Russia for war service, observing that we leave altogether out of the following lists the thirteen monitors, and also the three cruising ironclads General Admiral, Duke of Edinburgh, and Minin, because of their present unreadiness:—

TURKISH IRONCLADS.			
	Displacement Tonnage.	Principal Armament.	Thickest Armour.
Mesoudieh ...	8994	12 guns of 18 tons	12 in.
Noosretieh ...	6900	10 guns of 12½ tons	9 in.
Azizieh ...	6500	15 guns of 6½ tons 1 gun of 12½ tons	5½ in.
Orkanieh ...	6500	" "	5½ in.
Osmanieh ...	6500	" "	5½ in.
Mahmoudieh ...	6500	" "	5½ in.
Athar Terdik ...	5000	8 guns of 12½ tons	8 in.
Fethi Bulend ...	2760	4 guns of 12½ tons	9 in.
Mukadamm Kies ...	2760	" "	9 in.
Avni Allah ...	2320	" "	7 in.
Muni Zafer ...	2320	" "	7 in.
Athar Shefket ...	2300	1 gun of 12½ tons 4 guns of 6½ tons	4½ in.
Neghim Shefket ...	2300	" "	4½ in.
Idjla Lieh ...	2300	" "	4½ in.
*Latif Gelit ...	2300	2 guns of 6½ tons	4½ in.
*Hazi Rahman ...	2300	" "	4½ in.

*And five river vessels.

*Light draught gun-boats. One of them since destroyed.

RUSSIAN IRONCLADS.			
(Omitting thirteen monitors and three incomplete cruising ironclads.)			
	Displacement Tonnage.	Principal Armament.	Thickest Armour.
Peter the Great ...	9660	4 guns of 40 tons	15 in.
Sevastopol ...	6275	18 guns of 9½ tons	4½ in.
Petropaulski ...	6175	20 guns of 9½ tons	4½ in.
Prince Pojarsky ...	4500	10 guns of 9½ tons	4½ in.
Admiral Lazareff ...	3750	6 guns of 15½ tons	6 in.
Admiral Grieg ...	3580	3 guns of 27 tons	6 in.
Admiral Chichagoff ...	3700	2 guns of 27 tons	6 in.
Admiral Spiridoff ...	3750	2 guns of 27 tons	6 in.
Porvenetz ...	3360	14 guns of 9½ tons	4½ in.
Netro-Monja ...	"	16 guns of 9½ tons	4½ in.
Kreml ...	"	12 guns of 9½ tons 5 guns of 5 tons	6 in.
Novgorod (Popoffka) ...	2500	2 guns of 27 tons	11 in.
Admiral Popoff ...	3550	2 guns of 40 tons	18 in.

It may be taken for granted, we think, that the above lists represent the full available force of either country for service in the South of Europe; and it appears to us that the comparison is not, all things considered, so adverse to Russia as many have supposed, if we regard the probability of a contest in the Mediterranean. For, in the first place, it is obvious that Turkey cannot afford, and is not likely, to abandon the Black Sea altogether, even for the purpose of giving battle to the Russian Squadron when it makes its appearance in the South and proceeds to menace Turkish ports. Turkey will desire to keep that command of the Black Sea which is at present hers, and to blockade all those Russian ports there from which Russia might send supplies to her invading army of the Danube. This she will have to do in presence, so to speak, of the two Russian Popoffkas, which, however low an opinion may be formed of their steaming powers, are capable of proceeding in a comparatively few hours to any part of the Euxine, either to break a blockade or to attack Turkish ports. The Turks must, therefore, continually keep in the Black Sea a sufficiently powerful force to fight these two ships, should they come out. And it is here that the great value of these Popoffkas to Russia comes in. One of these ships, the Admiral Popoff, carries the most powerful guns yet afloat in the world, and the Novgorod has 27-ton guns, and even these are 50 per cent more powerful than any guns carried in the Turkish fleet. Besides this, these vessels are defended, as we have seen, with armour 11 in. thick in the one case and 18 in. thick in the other; and there is but one ship in the Turkish fleet, and that the largest, which has guns at all able to penetrate such armour as this. It is true that as they are to fight from inner waters, these Popoffkas have their guns in open-topped turrets, and would, therefore, run risk of having their armaments made useless by inferior ships of the broadsidetype with heavy guns at tolerably close quarters; but it is quite possible that even in the open they would, with their powerful guns, and their invulnerable sides, successfully engage even several of the

Turkish vessels, especially as they are very much safer under the attacks both of rams and torpedoed than ordinary vessels. Of course superior skill, or even superior courage, in the handling of ships may set at nought all vaticinations on such a subject; but for purposes such as ours at present is we can only consider the relative capabilities of the vessels themselves. What appears to us probable is that the Mesoudieh, with her lofty battery of twelve 18-ton guns, would have a very fair chance of quickly silencing the two Popoffkas at close quarters, and therefore we think it doubtful if they will venture out in her presence; but, on the other hand, if this ship be withdrawn from the Black Sea, we do not see how the Popoffkas are to be met successfully, except by a combined attack of several of the other Turkish vessels. When, therefore, the Russian squadron appears in the Mediterranean, Turkey will have to decide whether she will keep the Mesoudieh in the Black Sea to control the Popoffka, in which case she will have to encounter the Peter the Great, with ships carrying no gun heavier than those of 12½ tons; or whether she will send the Mesoudieh southwards to meet the great Russian monitor, and attempt to control the Popoffka by a detachment of less powerful ships, in which case an action between the Popoffkas and the Turkish frigates or corvettes would, no doubt, ensue. One thing appears quite certain—viz., that in either case we shall be likely to witness an action south of the Dardanelles between a Russian and a Turkish squadron of not very unequal power. It may be interesting to forecast—although this can only be done in a very general way, of course—the probable composition of the two hostile fleets. We will assume that, after making due allowances for unreadiness and for other demands upon the Russian naval force, that the squadron menacing the Turkish southern ports, and bringing on the battle, will be composed of nine ships (observing that, although we select the names of certain ships of each class, we do that merely for convenience, and with the view that the mere interchange of ships of the same class, in either navy, would make no difference in the result). Presuming that the Mesoudieh is sent south, and that, besides the river gun-boats, the Noosretieh, the Athar Terdik, the two fast corvettes, Fethi Bulend and Mukadamm Kies, and one of the smaller vessels of the Athar Shefket class, and no more, are also retained for Black Sea purposes—and we really do not see how less than these five vessels could at all hope to maintain blockades and engage, with a chance of success, the Russian circular ships—we shall then have nine ships left to compose the Mediterranean squadron. Here, then, we have the two hostile squadrons composed as follows:—

TURKISH SQUADRON.		RUSSIAN SQUADRON.	
Mesoudieh ...	8994 tons.	Peter the Great ...	9660 tons.
Azazieh ...	6500 "	Sevastopol ...	6200 "
Orkanieh ...	6500 "	Petropaulski ...	6175 "
Osmanieh ...	6500 "	Prince Pojarsky ...	4500 "
Mahmoudieh ...	6500 "	Admiral Lazareff ...	3750 "
Avni Allah ...	2320 "	Admiral Grieg ...	3580 "
Muni Zafer ...	2320 "	Admiral Chichagoff ...	3700 "
Neghim Shefket ...	2300 "	Admiral Spiridoff ...	3750 "
Idjla Lieh ...	2300 "	Kreml ...	3300 "
Total ...	44,234 tons.	Total ...	41,835 tons.

The reader will see, by referring to the lists given a little further back, that, apart from the two largest ships, there are no great differences of armour between the two squadrons taken as a whole, none of the remaining ships having less than 4½-inch or more than 7-inch in either squadron, and most of them having 5½-inch or 6-inch armour. As regards guns, the comparison is as follows—remembering, however, that in the four Russian turret-ships the guns are available for fighting on either side, which is also the case in one or two of the smaller Turkish ships, but to nothing like the same extent or with the same ease and readiness as in the turret ships. Taking the whole of the principal guns in the ships we have:—

GUNS IN TURKISH SQUADRON.		GUNS IN RUSSIAN SQUADRON.	
12 of 18 tons, equal to 216 tons.		4 of 40 tons, equal to 160 tons.	
14 of 12½ tons, equal to 175 "		7 of 27 tons, equal to 189 "	
68 of 6½ tons, equal to 442 "		6 of 15½ tons, equal to 93 "	
		60 of 9½ tons, equal to 570 "	
94 guns, weighing ...	833 tons.	77 guns, weighing ...	1012 tons.

It will be seen from the above that the two hostile squadrons, if composed as we conjecture, will be fairly matched, if we regard the aggregate tonnage, but the Russian squadron would have the heavier armament, measured by the aggregate gun-weight. In respect of number of guns the Turkish squadron has the greater; but in these days that points, of course, to weakness rather than strength—otherwise a ship with thirty of the old 55-cwt. guns which were in vogue before the days of ironclads would be equal in offensive power to the Devastation. The greatest interest of an engagement between two such squadrons as the above would, of course, be centred in the contest between the Peter the Great and the Mesoudieh; and the victory ought, if modern ideas are sound, to be with the turret-ship, which has armour that the other ship's guns cannot pierce, and guns which can pierce hers. If either of the two ships surrendered, leaving the other still in a fighting condition, the destruction which would fall upon the remainder of the fleet which had thus lost its champion would doubtless be speedy and complete. We need not push our speculations on the subject further, because in the interval that is elapsing between the declaration of war and the departure from the Baltic of the Russian squadron of the south the Turks have things all their own way in the Black Sea, and may find means of destroying the Popoffkas, and of thus setting their whole ironclad fleet free to meet the enemy.

Thus far we have not taken into account the probable influence which the new weapon of naval warfare, the torpedo, will have upon the operations of the belligerents. For obvious reasons, both Powers have kept the general public pretty much in the dark respecting the extent to which they have been able to possess themselves of these destructive instruments. We are not disposed to believe that either Power has provided itself with large supplies of them, because there is great reason to believe that the want of financial means, which has operated so



TURKISH INFANTRY.



RUSSIAN INFANTRY.

seriously in the case of the ships, has had its effect here likewise. Our readers will have observed that, although this war has been more or less probable for two years past, the Turks have one of the most powerful ships still lying complete but unarmed in our docks; and two more vessels of very recent type, and invaluable at such a time as this, the one unfinished in dock and the other unlaunched upon the stocks; or have, rather let us say, parted with these vessels, although there has been ample time to complete the whole. Want of financial means has doubtless been the sole cause of this state of things. Nor can it be doubted that, with a freer application of money to the object, all doubt about the readiness for sea of the Russian ships *Minin*, General Admiral, and Duke of Edinburgh would have been at an end. In the matter of torpedoes the same hard necessity has no doubt pressed on both Governments; and in the case of the Whitehead torpedo other difficulties likewise have existed. The invention is still more or less secret, and more or less under the control of Mr. Whitehead himself, who is enthroned at Fiume like a Prince of Destroyers, to whom the Powers of Europe, and of other parts of the world beside, are continually sending their envoys to learn his latest wishes and behests—envoys bearing golden gifts as the price of his disclosures. So strange a phenomenon has never before been seen, and it remains to be ascertained hereafter how far this naval demi-god has set free or restrained the present belligerents. Events will, we think, show that up to the present time no great supplies of the fish torpedo have been secured by either party. On the other hand, some limited supplies have been obtained, we believe, by both, and torpedoes of other descriptions are also in the possession of both; and we may consequently look for very interesting operations shortly. Never before was there a time in which single ships embodied such vast results of labour and expense as the *Mesoudiye* and Peter the Great each represent, and never before was there a time when science had put it into the power of a boat's crew to blow up a big ship with so simple an instrument. England may well look with anxiety, and even longing, to learn the results of war between such navies as we have described; but neither anxiety nor longing ought for a single moment to be allowed to paralyse, or even to delay, her own exertions; for whether Russia or Turkey win the battles, small and great, that are likely to be soon fought, the loser will be the loser much less from mistakes than from inaction—from doing too little rather than from doing what was not the best.

At the same time, it is not a little instructive to observe what mistakes have been made by both Governments in building up their respective ironclad fleets. Russia has, in our opinion, made three grave errors. First, in the early days of ironclads she clearly expended far too much upon mere Baltic coast-defence monitors and floating batteries, considering that she had been debarred by the Treaty of Paris from building or maintaining a Black Sea fleet. At least thirteen of her existing vessels are unfit to come to her aid now in the south; whereas, had she expended the same money in seaworthy ironclads, she might have had, say, eight additional ships to those coming south, and thus have sent an overwhelming force into the Mediterranean. Secondly, she made a great and terrible mistake when she took up the demand for rigged turret-ships of low freeboard, in face of the steady opposition which the scheme met with in this country from naval constructors of the greatest experience and repute. Our own Government, indeed, gave way, in one slip, and paid the penalty in a frightful catastrophe; and, although this came in time for Russia to profit by it so far as to avert like losses, she is saddled with four very inefficient ships, in place of four powerful and successful vessels; and, thirdly, Russia has made and is still making the grave and inexcusable error of limiting her navy solely to the ships she can produce in her own country, where the disadvantages of shipbuilding are enormous, and where the cost of ships is equally great. No one could for a moment blame, or even fail to admire, the energetic efforts which foreign countries make to develop their own resources, and to cease to depend for manufactures upon other countries but such efforts require to be regulated, and to be brought under the control of other considerations, and we venture to assert that if this question had been properly understood in Russia she would now, with her past expenditure, have possessed a navy twice as strong as her present one, and at the same time have had ship-yards and engine factories of her own in a far healthier and more prosperous condition than hers can at present profess to be. In Turkey this last error of Russia has been entirely avoided, her efforts to promote shipbuilding at home having been judiciously made, and very successful. Whatever her fleet may be, it has certainly been constructed with far greater economy than the Russian fleet, and no great or glaring errors have been made in this respect. But there has been one serious error committed, and that is the very reverse of the first error which we have had occasion to impute to Russia. Turkey has made her ironclad navy too largely and too exclusively a navy of masted and rigged ships. Her necessities have for many years past pointed to the construction in the main of steam fighting ships—ships capable of going long distances, if necessary, but in which great offensive and defensive power took the first place. Far too much has been expended upon furnishing all her ships with masts and sails, and for no better reason, we fear, than to afford the late Sultan, Abdul Aziz, with the personal pleasure of looking from his palace windows upon a fleet in all points equal, ship for ship, with the rigged frigates of England and France. At any rate, the construction of this sort of ship has been pushed too far in Turkey, especially of late years, when, with the circular ironclads of Russia taking shape at Nicolaieff, it would have been wiser to concentrate the whole expenditure upon offensive, defensive, and steaming qualities. On the whole, however, and viewing the subject from the commencement of ironclad shipbuilding down to the present, we think Turkey has done better than Russia in this matter, and is at the present moment much better able than Russia to bring into action the results of her expenditure upon ironclads.

THE TURKISH ADMINISTRATION.

The Ottoman Empire, comprising all its provinces, in Europe and in Asia, under the immediate rule of the Sultan at Constantinople, has a total population estimated at twenty-eight millions and a half. Thirteen millions and a half are considered to be of the Ottoman Turkish nation, of whom less than two millions are found in European Turkey. The Mussulman population, in all, numbers about eighteen or nineteen millions, including, besides the Ottoman Turks, above four millions of Turcomans, Arabs, Albanians, Kurds, and Circassians, mixed up with others in different parts, and probably half a million of the Bulgarian and Slav races, more especially in Bosnia, who have adopted the religion of their conquerors. The ten millions of people reckoned as Christians are divided chiefly between the Orthodox or Greek-Russian Church, the Armenian, and the Bulgarian ecclesiastical communions, with above half a million Roman Catholics, and a few Nestorians or Jacobites, besides the Jews and Gipsies. In general, throughout the Turkish Empire there is perfect liberty of sequestered religious worship; but the non-Mussulman Churches and sects are not allowed to make converts by the open preaching of their doctrines in public. The Christians, of whatsoever race, indiscriminately called *Rayahs*, are excluded from civil offices and exempted from military service, instead of which they pay a certain tax in money; but they are allowed to manage their own affairs in small local communities, free from Government interference. In all private and social relations amongst themselves, where none of their Mohammedan neighbours happen to be concerned, the *Rayahs* enjoy a large share of practical liberty, which they have used, in most instances, to prosper fairly by their agricultural, industrial, and trading occupations. The Bulgarians in European Turkey, and the Armenians in Asia Minor, as well as at Constantinople, have long been accustomed to do nearly all the real steady work of farming, manufacturing, and ordinary labour; while the Greeks have followed the gainful pursuits of commerce and finance, and all manner of intrigue. The Mussulman lords of this extensive region, as a general rule, are content to indulge their natural indolence, and their pride as a superior class of privileged proprietors, without producing any contribution to the wealth of the country. The Turkish or Syrian peasant will, of course, labour as much as he is obliged to do for his mere livelihood; and there are Mohammedan tradesmen and craftsmen, along with others, in the cities and towns of Turkey. But the Turkish rural landowner or squire, who is entitled *Agha* or *Beg*, has too high a sense of his personal dignity ever to condescend to useful business. These classes of the Turkish population are nevertheless equal, in most domestic and social virtues, though not in the virtue of industry, to those of any other nation. Their honesty, sobriety, and veracity, and their kindness of disposition, when not inflamed by religious animosities, are fully attested by every foreign resident in Turkey. A very different character is ascribed to the class of metropolitan Turks at Stamboul, the place-hunters, officials and courtiers of the Sultan's Government, from whom the Pashas and Beys exercising power in his name are selected. There is probably not a more corrupt and worthless set of men, intrusted with rule over their fellow-subjects, in any country of the world; extortionate, unjust, and cruel beyond our conception, and frequently addicted to the most infamous vices. This frightful demoralisation of the Turkish governing class, which has not yet infected the whole Turkish nation, is the result of four centuries of absolute domination. It is not the moral teaching of the Koran, though much harm is done by polygamy, chiefly practised by men of wealth and rank; nor is it the inherent wickedness of an "anti-human specimen of humanity," that has developed such monstrous governmental iniquity among the Osmanli or Ottoman lords of the East. They have become so depraved from the possession of despotic power, like the ancient Romans of the Western and Eastern Empire; and we have no reason to say that Englishmen, placed in the same position, would have behaved much better, unless restrained by the purifying influence of the Christian faith.

These remarks will serve for an introduction to a brief statistical account of the administration of the Turkish Empire. Its vast and various territories, extending from the banks of the Danube and the shores of the Adriatic to those of the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf, are divided into twenty-two Provinces or Vilayets, eight of them in Europe and fourteen in Asia. Those in Europe are the metropolitan district of Constantinople, to which is annexed the neighbourhood of Scutari, on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus; the province of Adrianople, including the better part of Roumelia or Thrace, limited northward by the Balkans; the Danubian province, called *Touma*, which extends from Varna, on the Black Sea coast, westward as far as Widdin, on the Danube, adjoining the Servian and Roumanian frontiers; the province of Bosnia and that of Herzegovina, which occupy the north-western corner of the Turkish Empire, adjacent to the Austrian dominions; the province of Salonica, including the ancient Macedonia, on the shores of the *Ægean* Sea; the south-western provinces of Monastir or Pristend, and of Scodra and Yannina, or Albania and Epirus; besides which there is the island province of Crete or Candia, and one comprising the Greek isles of Rhodes, Chios, Mytilene, Cos, and Cyprus. There is a similar subdivision of Asia Minor, Syria, and Mesopotamia, into fourteen Vilayets or Provinces. The most considerable are those of Aidin (with Smyrna), Aleppo, Bagdad, Trebizond, Erzeroum, Adana, Tripoli, Syria, and Koordestan. The Governor of a Vilayet is styled the *Vali*, and is usually a man of the rank of Pasha, but absolutely dependent on Court favour. He gets his appointment from the Council of State at Constantinople by dint of gross and notorious bribery; and, his tenure of office being very short and uncertain, he strives to enrich himself, as quickly as possible, by every sort of trickery, and by squeezing the unfortunate people under his rule. Each Vilayet is further divided into five or

six *Livas* or *Sandjaks*, which are managed respectively by their *Mutecarrifs*, under the general instructions of the *Vali*; and each *Sandjak* comprises so many *Cazas*, under their respective *Caimacams*, or *Mushirs*, these sub-governors being likewise appointed in Constantinople. Below this grade of Turkish Government officials, and their spheres of iniquitous oppression, are the *Nahichs*, or *Communes*, each presided over by a Mayor, called the *Mudir*, who is elected by the inhabitants, and who may be a Christian; there are also the *Codja-bashis*, or head men of villages, under the orders of the *Mudir*. A Council, which in the Turkish language is a "*Medjliss*," and in which one or two Christians may sit with a dozen Mohammedans, assists every grade of executive officials; the *Vali* has his *Medjliss*, including the provincial judges or *Muftis*; the *Mutecarrif* has his, consisting of the magistrates or *Cadis*, the leading clergymen, and four elected members; the *Mushir* or *Caimacam*, and the *Mudir* of a commune, have similar nominal assistants. But it too often proves that the *Medjliss* is only a screen for the illegal and oppressive acts of the administration. The whole of this complicated machinery, in fact, is applied by the ruling Pasha to the purpose of extorting money, in a variety of irregular ways, but mainly by intimidation, from the more helpless classes of the Sultan's subjects, and the *Rayahs* are most helpless, because their complaints will never be heard by the Sultan. With regard, however, to the judicial system and the dispensation of civil and criminal law, there is a distinct set of law courts, with peculiar jurisdiction, composed of Mussulman and Christian Judges sitting together, for the trial of cases in which any of the Christian subjects of the Sultan are plaintiffs or defendants. The ordinary Moslem courts of law, which deal with all cases in which only Mussulman plaintiffs and defendants, or accused persons and prosecutors, are concerned, have an entirely different character. They are composed of *Mollahs*, or Judges of the Law of the Koran, which is styled the *Cher'i*, and the supreme head of this learned body is the *Sheikh-ul-Islam*, who is at once Lord Chancellor and Primate of the Mohammedan Church. But the law deduced from the moral and religious precepts of Mohammedanism, by a succession of literary scholars and commentators since the Middle Ages, is now supplemented with rules derived from the old Roman or Civil Law of the Empire, and from the French Code Napoleon; so that it is tolerably fit for application to modern secular affairs. The district judges, *Naihs* or *Cadis*, of the Moslem law-courts, are said to be men of tolerable integrity; and it seems to be acknowledged, on the whole, that the Turkish judiciary is much sounder than the administrative or executive branches of government. The *Sheikh-ul-Islam*, indeed, is a venerable personage at Stamboul, the organ of ecclesiastical and legal authority, placed high above those temptations of servility and venality which beset the Sultan's courtiers, parasites, and Ministers of State. The *Mollahs*, and the various degrees of rabbis, teachers, scribes, and lawyers, constitute a fairly respectable corporation, with the *Sheikh-ul-Islam* at their head, willing to exert their influence for the protection of good Mussulman subjects against the abuses of governmental power. But the unfortunate Christians and Jews have no such effectual protection. The Patriarch of the Greek Church has usually been a mere instrument of Turkish tyranny. The Bulgarian national Church, till lately overborne and suppressed by the Greek, has regained its ecclesiastical independence, but the chief of its hierarchy does not possess any credit or influence with the Sultan's Government; nor can the Armenian Patriarch or the Jewish Chief Rabbi, interfere on behalf of their fellow-religionists with any hope of obtaining redress. The source, indeed, of all that is evil in the home administration of the Turkish Empire will be found in its being absolutely centralised in the will of an autocratic ruler, who is incapable, from hereditary indolence and necessary ignorance, of really governing by himself, and must therefore commit his power to the hands of a few men about his Court, who do not care how sorely the non-Mussulman subjects are oppressed. This negative condition alone, even without the shameless profligacy and ruthless rapacity of Ministers and Pashas, corrupting and perverting the entire administration of Turkey, would seem to make it hopeless that equal justice can ever be done to Christians and Mohammedans under the Sultan's reign. The Christians of every race and class in Turkey are still treated as a conquered people, to be fleeced, insulted, and kept in perpetual degradation, by their Moslem conquerors, though four or five centuries have elapsed since the date of their conquest.

We shall now quote, from the writings of experienced and impartial English visitors or residents in different provinces of Turkey, a few testimonies upon this grievous subject. It may be well to look rather at the Asiatic provinces, which are not the scene of recent conflicts or revolts, and in which there is no opportunity for Russian agents to stir up disaffection. The late Mr. John Barker, who was Consul-General at Aleppo, and some time at Alexandria, and who resided in Syria nearly fifty years, has left his private opinions recorded in the biographical Memoir of him, compiled by his son, Mr. Edward Barker, also of the Consular service. This witness, one of high authority, and who had no prejudice against the Mohammedans on the score of their religion, being quite an admirer of the Arab character, gives us the worst account of Turkish provincial government. The pecuniary dishonesty, the manifold peculations, embezzlements, and frauds of which Pashas in high office are frequently guilty, the permanent conspiracy between a *Vali* or a *Mushir* and the leading members of the provincial Council or the *Medjliss* of his district, to bully, to rob, and to ill-treat their weaker neighbours, their ferocious vengeance upon any who dare to offer resistance, and the price at which they buy the tacit connivance of the Sultan's Ministers with these iniquitous practices, are here forcibly exposed. Mr. Barker the elder, and his son, the editor of the two volumes we have perused, whose experience comes down twenty years later, seems to have formed the same judgment of this question. They tell us that the modern institution of the *Medjlisses*, or provincial and municipal Councils, has only made the state of things worse than before.

"The medjlisses of each town," says Mr. Edward Barker, "combined with the Pashas or Governors to legalise their spoiliations, by a lying document called a 'mazbata,' sent to the Porte, signed by all the members of this Council, which declared whatever they pleased, at the suggestion of the Pasha. Sometimes, however, this weapon could be used both ways, and the Porte was defrauded. For instance, the Vali or Pasha of a district put up at auction the tithes on the Government account, and sent this certificate, the 'mazbata,' to the effect that, after some weeks' competition, the farming of tithe was adjudged to a Christian or a Jew merchant, generally a moribund one, Youssuf or Moosa. As soon as the harvest was ready to be got in, or more generally when taken in coin, the money was collected and paid into the Pasha's treasury. The 'mazbata' was then again resorted to, to declare that the Christian or Jew had become bankrupt, and that after the seals had been taken of his house and property, little or nothing was found. When the Porte, unwilling to lose so large a sum as, perhaps, £300,000 or £400,000, sent an officer called the 'Mombashir' to investigate he was told that the Christian or Jew had fled, or was dead. The 'mazbata' again came into play, and was delivered to the officer, who would receive a bribe, besides his fees, and declare all square on his return to Constantinople. For was not the 'mazbata' there? A second officer would be sent, with the same result, and so on; but this is an extreme case, which, however, has been known to occur in the pashalik of Bagdad, and three 'mombashirs' were sent, to no purpose, one after another, two of whom we saw on their passage through Aleppo. In general, the Porte took care to be on the safe side, by rendering the Valis or Pashas responsible; but the iniquities committed by the system of 'mazbatas,' under the authority of the Porte, were frequent and ruinous. After twenty years' residence in habitual contact with this council or medjliss, on public and private business, wherever we have resided, we can with truth declare that we believe it to have been the most baneful and unfortunate concession, on apparently liberal principles, that could have been made to a country just emerging from anarchy, as the Turkish Empire then was."

The views above set forth by Mr. Barker in Syria, with regard to the futility and inutility, at least, of the Medjliss, as a check upon malversation of the civil authority, are confirmed by the experience of Dr. Sandwith in Asia Minor. We quote from his "Narrative of the Siege of Kars," published in 1856:—

"Now, in Turkey, where there is no free press and no expression of public opinion, the working of these municipal councils, so fine in theory, does but multiply the oppressors of the people. Instead of one tyrant in the form of a Deribey, there are fifty smaller ones, each bent on enriching himself at the expense of the community. The müdir or kaimakam appointed at Constantinople may possibly be an honest man, and may have come with a determination to resist oppression, but no sooner does he attempt to thwart the designs of the Medjliss than the members unite against him, and send to Constantinople a 'mazbata' or round-robin—an instrument of irresistible force in Turkey—praying for his removal, and accusing him of all sorts of crimes and misdemeanours. This petition is always attended to, since the mudirlik or kaimakamlik is a most valuable piece of patronage at Constantinople, for it brings in a certain money value to some great Pasha, who sits in his 'yali' on the Bosphorus and dispenses places at so many thousand piastres each.

"The theory," says Dr. Sandwith, "of the election of the members of the Medjliss is that the notables of the town are elected by the popular voice; but in reality they are always the creatures of the Pasha. In these municipal councils Christians are supposed by very credulous Ottomans to have a voice; I believe that one or two are admitted to a seat in the Medjliss of the Pashalik, to carry out a theory; but I never heard of one being hardy enough to open his mouth. The Medjliss, or Council of the Mushir, regulates the taxes, sending the demand for the sum required to the Kaimakams; these apportion it to the mudirs, who divide and apportion so much to each muktar, or chief of a village, who must collect the money. The municipal councils also fix the price of bread, corn, and other commodities for their own district. Unfortunately for the sake of justice and fair play, the members of this council are always tradesmen, and generally contrive the prices to suit their own advantage. They also hear criminal cases, and farm the taxes. When any public works are undertaken the medjliss fixes the price of labour and the number of men to be employed. These latter are supposed to give their time and labour in lieu of taxes; and in no department is there such injustice and plunder. The bill of costs to the Government is signed by each member of the medjliss, each taking his share of the proceeds of peculation. All the wrongs, the unjust exaction of labour, double taxation, truck system, and other burdens grievous to be borne, fall on the unfortunate peasant, who is thereby ground down to the lowest stage of poverty, and can never hope to improve his position.

"The criminal cases are tried before the Medjliss, the money cases by the Kaimakam, or Cadi; and these latter are entitled to five per cent on the sum awarded to the successful client, when the debt is above a certain amount. Collusion, I am told, frequently occurs; a false charge is made by a man, the debt is awarded to him, and the corrupt judge receives his five per cent or more. If a Turk is condemned to pay a Christian, he refuses to submit to the decision of the Cadi, and carries his case to the 'Mehkemé.' This is a tribunal, of which the Cadi is the president, and of which the decisions are guided entirely by the Koran, the Mufti being referred to in cases of difficulty. Here, the Christian is not recognised as a fellow-citizen; he is a 'rayah,' or conquered being, whose existence is only tolerated by his paying a ransom yearly for his head, called a 'haratch.' It would be monstrous, indeed a great sin, to admit his evidence; therefore the Mussulman's 'yea or nay' is sufficient to overthrow all Christian asseverations or testimony. In February, 1854, a firman was published, to the effect that

Christians were henceforward to be considered as fellow-citizens, and their 'information' taken in all courts of justice throughout the Empire. Mark the word 'information,' which was used instead of 'oath,' that the religious prejudices of the people might not be shocked. This new law was published in the European papers, and sundry hopeful comments were made upon it; but we, knowing better, understood that it was what both English and Turks call 'bosh'; that it was but a sop thrown to the barking diplomatic Cerberus, and never intended to be acted upon. Since then I have been nearly two years in the provinces, both in European and Asiatic Turkey, and have seen Christians frequently wronged, but have never heard of their evidence being taken. Each Pasha, when questioned concerning this firman, declares he knows nothing of it; no firman of the kind has ever been officially communicated to him. He must act according to his instructions; he cannot take cognisance of firmans conveyed through European Consuls."

Dr. Sandwith relates a trial he once heard before the "Mehkemé" of a town governed by a Pasha of two tails; an Armenian tradesman had intrusted some paper money to a Turkish officer, who had agreed to get it exchanged for gold, but kept back part of it. The Turk, when sued for this amount, insisted on his right to be tried by the "Mehkemé," where he knew the Koran would serve him in his need. When the Mussulman and the Armenian were confronted before that religious tribunal, the former declared that it was the Armenian who wished to rob him; that he (the Turk) had placed the sum, in paper money, in the hands of a third person, to be changed for gold, and that the Armenian had taken it for that purpose, but had never paid him the gold. "Do you swear to this?" asked the President. "I swear it on the Koran," answered the Turk. "It is enough." The Armenian had brought witnesses, but as they were all Christians their evidence was impossible; so the hapless Armenian was obliged to refund all the gold he had previously obtained, and found himself a ruined man. This happened some months after the firman accepting Christian evidence was issued. But it is satisfactory to observe, in the sequel of the story, that by the interference of a distinguished British official, whose indignation was roused by what he saw of "Turkish oppression and Turkish insolence," the Pasha of the province was induced to take up this case and order the poor Armenian's money to be restored to him. "I suppose," Dr. Sandwith remarks, "that a mixture of fanaticism and venality influences the judges on such occasions. These were men whom a pound sterling would influence in their decision; and it is probable that the officer gave them a share of the spoil, while they soothed their consciences, if they had any, by the conviction that they were acting up to the precepts of the Koran." But the Koran certainly does not lend any sanction to fraud, robbery, and injustice in dealings between man and man.

"I cannot do better," adds this writer, "than give an example of the way in which the feelings of this class of the Sultan's subjects are rudely trampled on by Mussulman intolerance. Here is a faithful translation of a 'teskeré,' or permit of burial, given by the Cadi of Mardin in the spring of this year, 1855, to a Christian applying for it. He has given, and does give, scores of the like kind to all the Ghiaours in his jurisdiction, and here it is: 'We certify to the priest of the Church of Mary that the impure, putrid, stinking carcase of Saideh, damned this day, may be concealed underground. Sealed, El Said Mehemed Faizi. A.H. 1271, Rejib 11 (March 29, A.D. 1855).' Facts speak for themselves; and I would ask, how is it possible for the Christians to be well treated when such judges as these are put over them, who insult and plunder them as a sort of religious duty? The above facts are picked up by the merest accident; what thousands there are which never come to light!"

In Palestine, which is to most of us a country of the greatest interest among the Asiatic dominions of the Sultan, the effects of Turkish administration have always been exceedingly pernicious. Captain Warren, R.E., one of the directors of the recent archaeological and topographical researches at Jerusalem and in other parts of the Holy Land, thus sets forth his opinion concerning the obstacles to any improvement in the condition of that country:—

"The first and foremost difficulty is the present bad government; the people are oppressed, are wronged; there is no feeling of security for property or person; no justice, no honesty, among the officials. Bribery and corruption, according to our meaning of the terms, are mild words to set towards the infamous means by which money is extorted from the poor. And, unfortunately, the maladministration commences from the top. No Pasha could afford to be honest; no governor-general could venture to be just. The whole organism of the country lies on a rotten foundation, which is constantly being underpinned by the fortunes and lives of the Christians, and often, too, by those of the Moslems who have not been sufficiently wily to avoid getting into difficulties; but nothing will ever make that rotten foundation solid, based, as it is, on the Turks' view that the Christians and Jews cannot be admitted to an equal position in the country with the followers of the Prophet. The Moslem religion has entered into a phase which will admit of no prosperity in the land. Days were when trade by Christians and Jews was fostered, when the rulers of the country understood the art of governing; but now nothing is taught but the art of misrule, for Moslem fortunes are in the hands of the barbarous Turk.

"It is not the Christian alone of Syria that the Turk oppresses; the Arab Moslem is, if not equally, yet most hardly used. Many a time have the Arab Moslems said to me, 'When will you take this country and rid us of our oppressors? anything is better than their rule.' For the Turk has no affinity of race or language to connect him with, or give him a right to rule, the Arab. He has no power of sympathising with the Semitic races, and his religion is but in name. The Arab, if I may use such an expression, is a Moslem by nature; the Turk cannot become a Moslem by art. He is sent to Palestine to govern badly; he is given but a small salary,

and is obliged to squeeze the people in order to pay his own officials and to live, to recoup himself for what he has paid for his appointment in the past, and to carry away with him something for the future wherewith he may buy a higher appointment, or purchase immunity for the consequences of his evil deeds, should complaints be made against his rule. The Turk can never govern Palestine well; and until he departs the country must remain half desert, half prison; for it is his policy to leave it so. He wants it to continue impoverished, so that it may not tempt the cupidity of stronger nations."

We have seen the actual working of the Ottoman despotic rule in those provinces of Asiatic Turkey where the majority of its subjects are of the same religion with their conquerors, but of a different race. The Arabs, indeed, are a race incomparably superior to the Turks, and equal to any European nation in their capacity for a high civilisation, for law and government, science and literature, commerce and industry, and the arts of peace. It is only by the ferocious exercise of warlike violence, and of a ruthless tyranny, with rapacity and cruelty almost unsurpassed in the most savage state of mankind, that the Turks have succeeded in holding down the nobler and more intelligent Arabs of south-western Asia. Egypt, where the government is mainly carried on by Arabs, under its Khedive or Viceroy, has made only too rapid progress in the adoption of European improvements; and we are told by the late Mr. Barker, an eye-witness of the fact, that the eight years' rule of Syria by Mohammed Ali, Pasha of Egypt, till his expulsion in 1841 by British arms, was a period which contrasted most favourably with Turkish rule before or since. It is a mistake, therefore, to suppose that no Mohammedan Government can be a just, wise, or good one; the Arabs and the Moors, from Bagdad and Grand Cairo to Seville and Granada, have given the world splendid examples of social union, liberality, and culture. There may be in store, perhaps, for an age not very distant, a revival and regeneration of the Arab race, in Egypt, Tunis, Syria, and the Euphrates Valley, not less unequivocal than that of the Greek and Italian nationalities. But for this prospect to be entertained at the present day we must reckon upon the speedy disruption of the Turkish Empire.

The foregoing testimonies and comments have, we again observe, been purposely restricted to the Asiatic provinces of Turkey. With regard to the European Christian populations, Bulgarians, Greeks, and Slavs, whose unhappy situation, beneath the Ottoman rod of barbarous brute force, has at length excited a high degree of sympathy in English breasts, we do not think it needful to quote additional evidence of the character of Turkish rule in their oppressed native lands of Roumelia, Bulgaria, Macedonia, Bosnia, and Herzegovina, in Crete and other islands of the Levant. It would be superfluous to refer to such writers as the Rev. W. Denton, Miss Mackenzie and Miss Irby, Mr. Arthur Evans and Mr. H. O. Barkley, travellers or residents in European Turkey, whose statements have lately come under public notice. The monstrous, hideous, portentous fact of the recent massacres and nameless outrages inflicted upon thousands of the helpless Bulgarians, with the connivance and tacit approval, if not at the instigation, of the Sultan's Government, puts quite into the background all minor grievances of these sorely wronged Christian people, whose deliverance from the Turk is already vowed in every honest heart among us. But the ordinary, incorrigible, fatal vices of Turkish administration in those parts of Europe should be kept in mind with a view to political considerations; and it is deeply to be lamented that gross misconceptions upon this subject should have prevailed during the past twenty years. The result has been the waste of British money to the amount of nearly two hundred millions sterling, in those disastrous loans to the Government of Turkey which have, perhaps, rather precipitated than postponed the ruin of that doomed Empire. We will quote, more particularly upon that question, the remarks of Colonel James Baker, in his very recent work, "Turkey in Europe," which deals with the Turks in a friendly spirit.

"I give," says Colonel Baker, "some statistics of the average value of imports and exports of Turkey, and of the revenue returns. We see here a decrease in the revenue of upwards of three millions sterling, and it is significant that the only items of increase are spirits, judicial taxes or fines, and tapous, or tax on the transfer of lands, which certainly does not point to prosperity. I believe (and I know that I am borne out in my opinion by many competent authorities in Turkey) that this decrease in revenue is greatly attributable to the demoralising effects of the large foreign loans, which have induced Turkish capitalists to fly to the attractions of the Stock Exchange, instead of investing their capital in the country. Many landed proprietors have sold their estates simply for this purpose; others have invested every farthing they could scrape together in the same channel to the detriment of their estates, and consequently of their tenants, who have languished for want of support. The worst aspect of the case is that much of this money passes into the hands of foreign speculators and leaves the country, which thus becomes impoverished. Travel where you will in any part of Turkey, and in every small town you will find many of the wealthiest people who can think and talk of nothing else but Turkish bonds; and there is quite a feverish excitement on the subject. The whole gear of the commercial machinery of the country is put out of working order by this species of excitement; and when money cannot be obtained by fair means it is too often found by venality.

"With a sort of blind fatuity, the people insisted upon believing that the Porte would meet her liabilities, and thus, when the crisis, which might have been anticipated, was at length realised, all trade and enterprise was paralysed." Colonel Baker further remarks that "in finance, like all other branches of administration, Turkey has made great reforms within the last thirty years; but there is no doubt that, notwithstanding the reforms which have been promulgated, the officials and administrators generally are more corrupt now than

they were then." With this parting testimony from a friend of Turkey, we may take leave of that portion of the subject.

The late Mr. Nassau Senior, a most competent political and statistical inquirer, who visited Turkey on purpose to form a correct judgment of its real position, records his conversations with persons who had the best information and came to the following conclusions:—"Turkey, in fact, exists for two purposes; first, to act as dog in the manger, and to prevent any Christian Power from possessing a country which she herself, in her present state, is unable to govern or protect; and, secondly, for the benefit of some fifty or sixty bankers and usurers, and some thirty or forty Pashas, who make fortunes out of its spoils. I do not believe that the Turks are more idle, wasteful improvident, and brutal now than they were four hundred years ago. But it is only within the last fifty years that the effects of these qualities have shown themselves fully. When they first swarmed over Asia Minor, Roumelia, and Bulgaria, they seized on a country very populous and of enormous wealth. For three hundred and fifty years they kept on consuming that wealth, and wearing out that population. If a Turk wanted a house or a garden, he turned out a rayah; if he wanted money, he put a bullet into a handkerchief, tied it into a knot, and sent it to the nearest opulent Greek or Armenian. At last, having lived for three centuries and a half on their capital of things and of man, having reduced that rich and well-peopled country to the desert which you now see it, they find themselves poor. They cannot dig, to beg they are ashamed. They use the most mischievous means to prevent large families; they kill their female children, the conscription takes off the males, and they disappear. The amount of tyranny may be inferred from the depopulation. You see vast districts without an inhabitant, in which are the traces of a large and a civilised people, great works for irrigation now in ruins, and constant remains of deserted towns. There is a city near the frontier, with high walls and large stone houses, now absolutely uninhabited; it had once sixty thousand inhabitants. In government and religion Turkey is a de-

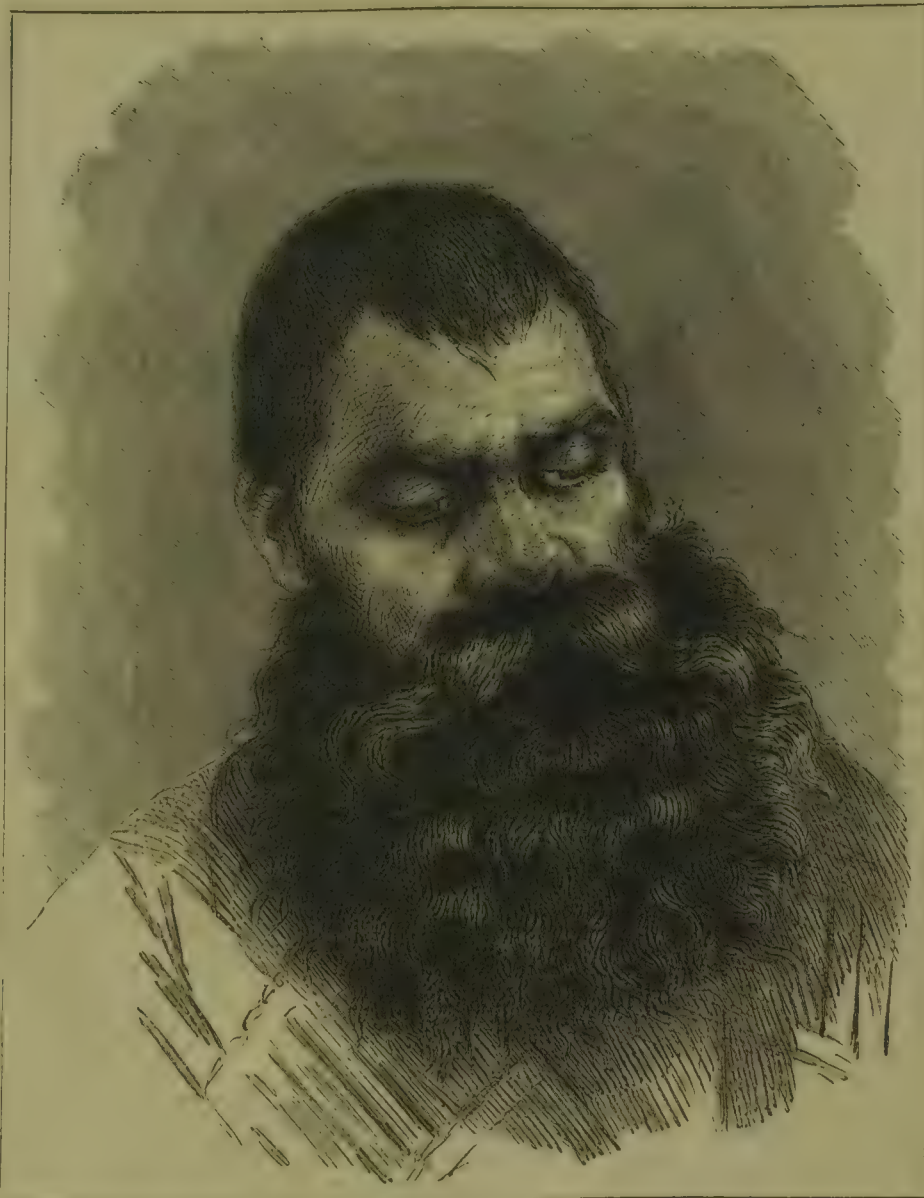
tritus. All that gave her strength, all that gave her consistency, is gone; what remains is crumbling into powder. The worst parts of her religion—hatred of improvement and hatred of the unbeliever; the worst parts of her detestable government—violence, extortion, treachery, and fraud—are all that she has retained. Never was there a country that more required to be conquered. Our support

the plains of Thrace, Macedonia, and Thessaly yield abundant and easy harvests to the husbandman; a thousand ports and a thousand gulfs are observed on the coasts, peninsulas, and islands. The billows of those seas still bathe the base of mountains covered with vines and olive-trees. But the populous and numerous towns mentioned by ancient writers have been changed into deserts beneath a despotic government.

merely delays her submission to that violent remedy. I can see no other solution: the Turk is utterly unimprovable. He hates change, and therefore he hates civilisation; he hates Europeans; he hates and fears all that they propose. There is not a word of it that does not disgust, or irritate, or alarm him. Nothing but force will oblige him to give it even the appearance of execution. And what is the value of apparent reforms in a people without an aristocracy, without a middle class, without a public opinion, without the means of communication, without newspapers, without even a post-office; accustomed for four hundred years to plunder and oppress rayahs and to be oppressed and plundered by Sultans, Pashas, Cadis, and Janissaries?"

We shall end this series of quoted opinions with one written forty years ago by an illustrious Englishman, the late Richard Cobden, who had not, indeed, at that time visited Turkey, but whose sentiments with regard to the moral and economic conditions of social welfare must always command our respect. Writing, in the year 1836, on the mutual relations of "Russia, Turkey, and England," he thus expressed his own view of the administration of the Ottoman Empire:—

"Down to our own time, the Turks governed a territory so vast and fertile that, in ancient ages, it comprised Egypt, Phœnicia, Syria, Greece, Carthage, Thrace, Pontus, Bithynia, Cappadocia, Epirus, and Armenia, besides other less renowned kingdoms. The present lamentable condition of this fine territory arises from no change in the seasons, or default of nature. It still stretches from 34 deg. to 48 deg. of north latitude, within the temperate zone, and in the same parallels as Spain, France, and the best portion of the United States. Mount Hæmus is still covered with verdant forests;



A DON COSSACK.



CONSTANTINOPLE, WITH THE SEA OF MARMORA.

"All the authorities upon this country assure us that the soil of many parts of Turkey is more fruitful than the richest plains of Sicily. When grazed by the rudest plough, it yields a more abundant harvest than the finest fields between the Eure and the Loire, the granary of France. Mines of silver, copper, and iron are still existing, and salt abounds in the country. Cotton, tobacco, and silk might be made the staple exports of this region, and their culture admits of almost unlimited extension throughout the Turkish territory; whilst some of the native wines are equal to those of Burgundy. Almost every species of tree flourishes in European Turkey. The olive, orange, mastic fig, pomegranate, and the laurel and myrtle are natural to this soil. Nor are the animal productions less valuable than those of vegetable life. The finest horses have been drawn from this quarter to improve the breeds of Western Europe; and the rich pastures of European Turkey are, probably, the best adapted in the world for rearing the largest growths of cattle and sheep.

"That, in a region so highly favoured, the population should have thus retrograded whilst surrounded by



RUSSIAN MONKS.

abundance; that its wealth and industry should have been annihilated; and that commerce should be banished from those rivers and harbours that first called it into existence—must be accounted for by remembering that even the finest soil, the most genial climate, and all the brightest and richest gifts of nature, are as nothing, when subjected to the benumbing influences of the Turkish Government at Constantinople. The Turks found, at the conquest of the Eastern Empire, splendid and substantial public and private edifices, which have been barbarously destroyed, or allowed to crumble beneath the hand of Time. Bridges, aqueducts, and harbours, the precious and durable donations of remote, yet more enlightened, generations, have all suffered a like fate; and the roads, even in the vicinity of the capital, which in former days maintained an unrivalled celebrity, are now in a broken and neglected condition. The cause of all this decay is ascribed to the Turkish Government, a fierce, unmitigated military despotism, allied with the fanaticism of a religion which teaches its followers to rely only on the sword, and to disdain all improvement by labour."



MONASTERY OF TROITSA, NEAR MOSCOW.

OUR ILLUSTRATIONS.

The Portraits of the two powerful Sovereigns, whose military and naval forces are now contending against each other for dominion and supremacy both in Eastern Europe and in Western Asia, are presented in this Special War Number of the ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS.

His Imperial Majesty Alexander II., Emperor of Russia, was born April 17 of the Russian Calendar (April 29, New Style) in the year 1818. He is eldest son of the late Emperor Nicholas I. and of the Empress Charlotte, who was Princess Charlotte of Prussia. He was educated, under the supervision of his father, by General Mörder, a German, and the Russian scholar and poet, Joukowski. He entered the military service in 1831, and became Colonel of the Grenadier Regiment in 1835. He travelled in Germany in 1840, and soon afterwards married Princess Maria, daughter of the late Grand Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt. The Grand Duke Alexander of Russia, as he was then styled, was nominated Chancellor of the University of Helsingfors, in Finland, and Superintendent of the Military Schools of the Empire. He held, in 1850, a command in the Russian army in the Caucasus. In 1855, during the Crimean War, upon the death of the late Emperor Nicholas, which took place on Feb. 18 (March 2 of our reckoning) in that year, Alexander succeeded to the throne of his father and grandfather; and he was crowned at Moscow, with a magnificent pomp and ceremonial, in September, 1856. The present Emperor has effected great reforms in the municipal and judicial institutions, the laws, and the official administration of his Empire; and he has, notwithstanding the opposition of a large class of nobles and landed proprietors, achieved the total and immediate abolition of serfdom, giving a complete emancipation to nearly twenty millions of peasantry, formerly bound in a depressing and humiliating servitude. He has been obliged, on the other hand, despite of his naturally humane and benevolent disposition, to permit the exercise of great severities in repressing the Polish insurrection of 1862; and the measures of his Government in the Caucasus and in Central Asia have been characterised by a policy of ruthless self-aggrandisement, and harshly repressive domination, which belies the reputed philanthropy of this mighty Emperor. His Majesty is father of six children now living; the eldest son, now Czarewitch and heir-apparent, is the Grand Duke Alexander, born in 1845, and married in 1866 to Princess Dagmar of Denmark, sister to our Princess of Wales. There are four other sons, Vladimir, Alexis, Sergius, and Paul. The only daughter, Grand Duchess Marie, was married, in January, 1874, to his Royal Highness Prince Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh. The Emperor's two brothers, Grand Duke Nicholas and Grand Duke Michael, command in this war.

His Imperial Majesty Abdul Hamid II., Sultan of Turkey, was born Sept. 5, 1842, the second son of Sultan Abdul Medjid. He succeeded to the throne, Aug. 31 last year, on the deposition of his elder brother, Sultan Murad V., who had been proclaimed Sultan three months before, when his uncle, Sultan Abdul Aziz, was deposed, after a most profligate and mischievous reign of sixteen years. By the laws of the Ottoman Turkish Empire, a brother is preferred, on account of seniority, to the son of a deceased sovereign, in the inheritance of the Crown, which belongs to the eldest male descendant of Othman, the founder of this dynasty nearly six hundred years ago. Even a cousin, who is older than the sons of a lately reigning Sultan, will be entitled to succeed him, instead of his own children. The present Sultan has several brothers. He is the thirty-fifth Sultan of the Ottoman Empire, and the twenty-eighth who has reigned at Constantinople since its conquest by Mohammed II. in 1453. He is entitled Commander of the Faithful, like the Arabian Caliphs of early Islam, and is official Protector of the orthodox Moslem religion—that is to say, of the Sunnite communion, held throughout Western Asia and North Africa; the Shiite sect of Mohammedans, in Persia, being excommunicated from the main body of the Prophet's disciples. The Sultan's own subjects usually call him the Padishah, or Supreme King; in diplomatic language, his Imperial Court or Government is styled "the Sublime Porte," which is a corruption of the Latin phrase, "Sub Limine Porta," formerly applied to the august threshold of the old Palace at Constantinople.

Our Illustrations of the cavalry and infantry soldiers of the Russian and Turkish armies require no further comment than is supplied by Captain H. Brackenbury's detailed account of their military organisation. In like manner, we need only refer to the special article, by Mr. E. J. Reed, on the naval forces and preparations of Russia and Turkey for all the

information that can be desired in view of the Engravings which represent one of the most formidable ships in each of the mutually opposing fleets. The Portraits of the Grand Duke Nicholas, Russian Commander-in-Chief on the Danube, and of Admiral Hobart Pasha, commander of the Turkish fleet, derive their present interest from the amount and employment of those great military and naval powers.

His Imperial Highness the Grand Duke, a younger son of the late Emperor Nicholas I., is nearly forty-six years of age, having been born in July or August, 1831. He married, in 1859, Princess Alexandra of Oldenburg, and has two sons, Nicholas and Peter, the former about twenty years of age, the latter a boy of thirteen. The Grand Duke Nicholas is in the full vigour of life, a strongly-made, muscular, soldierly-looking man, with a melancholy Romanoff face. He is General of Engineers and Aide-de-Camp General to the Emperor, Inspector-General of the Engineer Corps, of the Imperial Guard, and of the Cavalry, Commander-in-Chief of the Military District of St. Petersburg, President of the Supreme Committee on the Organisation and Instruction of the Army, Chief of a Grenadier regiment, of the regiments of Dragoons of Astrakhan, of the Alexander Hussars, and of the first battalion of Sappers of the Caucasus, Proprietor (Colonel-in-Chief) of the Austrian Hussars, No. 2, and Chief of the 5th Regiment of Prussian Cuirassiers.

Admiral Hobart Pasha is the Hon. Augustus Charles Hobart, a son of the Earl of Buckinghamshire. He was born in 1822, and entered the Royal Navy, in which he attained the rank of Captain. Having retired on half-pay, he found employment during the American Civil War, from 1861 to 1865, in commanding a swift blockade-runner, the Don, along the coast of North Carolina, and keeping up maritime communications with the Southern States in spite of the Federal blockading squadron. He published a narrative of these experiences, under the name of "Captain Roberts." In 1867, when the Cretan insurrection broke out, Captain Hobart entered the Turkish naval service, and was placed in command of the squadron which had to blockade the coasts of that island. The Greek Government then called the attention of her Majesty's Government to this fact, and the Admiralty, at the instance of the Foreign Office, struck his name off the British Navy List. In 1874 Admiral Hobart Pasha addressed a letter to Lord Derby admitting that he committed a breach of naval discipline by accepting service under the Turkish Government without leave, but adding:—"During seven years that have elapsed since that time I have endeavoured to maintain the character of an Englishman for zeal, activity, and sagacity, and I have been fortunate enough to obtain a certain European reputation of which I hope I may be justly proud. I prevented by my conduct during a very critical period at the end of the Cretan Revolution (while I was in command of a large Turkish fleet) much bloodshed, and, many people think, a European war. I have organised the Turkish navy in a way which has led to high encomiums as to its state from all the Commanders-in-Chief of the English fleets who have lately visited Constantinople. I have established naval schools, training and gunnery ships (and here I have been ably assisted by English naval officers). While doing all this towards strengthening the navy of our ally, I naturally have made many enemies. . . . All that they can find to say (and it is bitter enough) is, 'He has been dismissed the English service,' without, of course, explaining the cause. This is most painful to me, and is very detrimental to my already difficult position." He therefore asked that his offence might be overlooked and that he might be relieved from "the ban of disgrace." This application was supported by the Earl of Derby, "as a matter of Imperial policy," considering it to be of material advantage that Admiral Hobart Pasha should occupy the position he held in Turkey. The Lords of the Admiralty therefore consented to allow the Hon. Augustus Hobart to be reinstated in his former rank as a Captain in the Royal Navy, placing him on the retired list, with the opportunity of rising by seniority to the rank of a retired Admiral. He is reputed, we believe, to be an officer of considerable skill and ability in his profession, as well as of high courage and enterprise.

The remainder of our Illustrations, mostly those which represent scenes and figures or costumes of the different provinces in the Russian Empire, and in the Turkish capital, will be regarded with the more interest from a perusal of the "Tour in Russia," and of the other articles contained in this special publication.

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The birds awake with cheerful notes,
And 'midst the wild woods sing;
Whilst nature dons its emerald hue,
To welcome glorious spring.

To cull from FLORA's sweet retreats,
The essence of each flower,
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The gums it strengthens and improves,
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For the TEETH and BREATH.

WHAT DO THE LADIES SAY ABOUT IT?

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In raptures of its use;
And for a toilet requisite
Their praises are profuse.
All powders now are thrown aside,
And nothing else is seen
For cleansing well the teeth and gums
But FRAGRANT FLORILINE!

What say the ladies? Why, they say
It makes the breath sweetest,
As flowers scented, fresh and fair,
Which all the fair ones greet.
They say it does improve the teeth,
The gums, the breath, and mien;
And wonderful in its effects
Is FRAGRANT FLORILINE!

They say discoloured teeth look bad
(And that's a fact we know);
But Floriline soon changes them,
An' makes them white as snow.
The breath of men is also bad
When smoking they have been;
But changed it is to sweetest soon
By FRAGRANT FLORILINE.

FLORILINE.

For the TEETH and BREATH.

It may or may not be generally known that microscopic examinations have proved that animal or vegetable parasites gather, unobserved by the naked eye, upon the teeth and gums of at least nine persons in every ten; any individual may easily satisfy himself in this matter by placing a powerful microscope over a partially decayed tooth, when the living animalcules will be found to resemble a partial decay of the teeth. We may also state that the FRAGRANT FLORILINE is the only remedy yet discovered without a perfect cure to free the teeth and gums from these parasites without the slightest injury to the teeth or the most tender gums.

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For the TEETH and BREATH.

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They say it is a luxury,
And like a spell has broke
The sad annoyance oft incurred
By having just a smoke;
But now we can enjoy our weed,
Then join each to give some,
For every trace of smoke is lost
In FRAGRANT FLORILINE!

They say it is a luxury,
The teeth it keeps as white
As blossoms on the lovely May
When all is fresh and bright;
Discolourations all give place,
However long they've been.
And fresh and healthy is the mouth
With FRAGRANT FLORILINE!

They say it is a luxury,
Adds perfume to the breath,
And makes it quite as perfumed as
The violet-scented wreath;
The gums it gives a rosy hue,
The mouth makes fresh and clean,
And gentlemen and ladies too
Like FRAGRANT FLORILINE!

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For the TEETH and BREATH.

The "Christian World" of March 17, 1871, says, with respect to Floriline:—"Floriline bids fair to become a household word in England, and one of peculiarly pleasant meaning. It would be difficult to conceive a more efficacious and agreeable preparation for the teeth. Those who once begin to use it will certainly never willingly give it up."

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This preparation has never been known to fail in restoring the hair to its natural colour and gloss in from eight to twelve days. It promotes growth, and prevents the hair falling out, eradicating dandruff, and leaving the scalp in a clean, healthy condition.

It imparts peculiar vitality to the roots of the hair, restoring it to its youthful freshness and vigour. Daily applications of this preparation for a week or two will surely restore faded, grey, or white hair to its natural colour and richness.

It is not a dye, nor does it contain any colouring matter or offensive substance whatever. Hence it does not soil the hands, the scalp, or even white linen, but procures the colour within the substance of the hair.

It may be had of any respectable Chemist, Perfumer, or Dealer in Toilet Articles in the Kingdom, at 3s. 6d. per bottle. In case the dealer has not "The Mexican Hair Renewer" in stock and will not procure it for you, it will be sent direct by rail, carriage paid, on receipt of 4s. in stamps, to any part of England.—Prepared by HENRY C. GALLUP, 493, Oxford-street, London.

THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER.

WHAT BEAUTIFIES THE HAIR?

What gives luxuriance to each tress,
And pleases each one's fancies?
What adds a charm of perfect grace,
And nature's gift enhances?
What gives a bright and beauteous gloss,
And what says each reviewer?
"That quite successful is the use
OF 'THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER!'"

What gives luxuriance to each tress,
And makes it bright and glowing?
And keeps it free from dandruff, too,
And healthy in its growing?
What does such wonders? Ask the press,
And what says each reviewer?
"That none can equal or approach
"THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER!'"

What gives luxuriance to each tress,
Like some bright halo beaming?
What makes the hair a perfect mass
Of splendid ringlets teeming?
What gives profusion in excess?
Why, what says each reviewer?
"The choicest preparation is
"THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER!'"

What gives luxuriance to each tress,
And makes it so delightful?
Because to speak the honest truth
Is only just and rightful.
What say the people and the press,
And what says each reviewer?
"That most superb for ladies' use
Is 'THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER!'"

THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER

has gained for itself the highest reputation, and a decided preference over all other "hair-dressings," as evinced from certificates and testimonials from the most respectable sources. Being compounded with the greatest care—combining, as it does, all the most desirable qualities of the best hair preparations of the day, without the objectionable ones—it may be relied on as the very best known to chemistry for restoring the natural colour to the hair, and causing new hair to grow on bald spots, unless the hair glands are decayed; for if the glands are decayed and gone no stimulant can restore them; but if as is often the case the glands are only torpid, THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER will renew their vitality, and a new growth of hair will follow. Read the following Testimonial:—

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AN IMPORTANT QUESTION FOR LADIES.

Would you have luxuriant hair,
Beautiful, and rich, and long?
Would you have it soft and bright,
And attractive to the sight?
This you really can produce,
If you put in constant use
THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER!

The hair it strengthens and preserves,
And thus a double purpose serves;
It beautifies—improves it, too,
And gives it a most charming hue,
And thus in each essential way,
It public favour gains each day—
THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER!

If a single thread of hair
Of a greyish tint is there,
This "Renewer" will restore
All its colour as before,
And thus it is that vast renown
Does daily now its virtues crown—
THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER!

No matter whether faded grey,
Or falling like the leaves away,
It will renew the human hair,
And make it like its erstwhile peer:
It will revive it, beautify,
And every ard it wish supply—
THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER!

THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER.

The constitution of the person and the condition of the scalp have much to do with the length of time it requires for new hair to grow; also thin or thick hair will grow much upon the vital force remaining in the hair glands. New hairs are first seen to start above the margin of the bald spots near the permanent hair, and extending upwards until the spots are covered more or less thickly with fine short hair. Excessive brushing should be guarded against as soon as the small hairs make their appearance; but the scalp may be sponged with rain water to soothe the bone by the finger ends, which quickens the circulation and softens the spots which have remained long bald. On applying the hair-dressing it enlivens the scalp, and in cases where the hair begins to fall a few applications will arrest it, and the new growth presents the luxuriance and colour of youth. It may be relied on as the best hair-dressing known for restoring grey or faded hair to its original colour without dyeing it, producing the color within the substance of the hair, imparting a peculiar vitality to the roots, preventing the hair from falling, keeping the head cool, clean, and free from dandruff, causing new hairs to grow, unless the hair-glands are entirely decayed. THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER makes the hair soft, glossy, and luxuriant. Sold by Chemists and Perfumers, at 3s. 6d.; or sent to any address free on receipt of 4s. in stamps. HENRY C. GALLUP, Proprietor, 493, Oxford-street, London.

THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER.

When the hair is weak and faded,
Like the autumn leaves that fall,
Then is felt that sudden feeling,
Which does every heart enthral,
Then we look for some specific
To arrest it on its way,
And THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER
Bids it like enchantment stay.

It arrests decaying progress,
Though the hair's thin and grey.
It will strengthen and improve it,
And work wonders day by day.
It restores the colour,
And brings back its beauty, too;
For THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER
Makes it look both fresh and new.

What's the greatest hair restorer,
That the present age can show,
What produces wonders daily,
Which the world at large should know?
Why, THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER
Eminently stands the first;
Thus its fame by countless thousands
Day by day is now rehearsed.

What beautifies, improves, and strengthens,
Human hair of every age?
Why, this famous great restorer,
With the ladies in the rage,
And THE MEXICAN HAIR RESTORER
Is the very best in use.
For luxuriant tresses always
Does its magic powers produce.

THE WORDS "THE MEXICAN HAIR

RENEWER" are a Trade Mark; and the public will please see the words are on every case surrounding the Bottle, and the name H. C. GALLUP is blown in the bottle.

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